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ABSTRACT

"Innovation Abstracts" consists of brief, two-page write-ups issued approximately 40 times a year on topics that contribute to staff development. This compilation represents a selection from the 1984 volume of 22 numbers of special interest to community college faculty, administrators, and staff. The numbers selected are; (1) fragments of students' written work in the humanities; (2) results of a study of part-time faculty; (5) the benefits of keeping records of class sessions; (7) student development through general education; (9) improving education through faculty collaboration; (11) intra-university professorships for faculty renewal and development; (12) classroom quality circles; (15) faculty evaluation as a measure of organizational productivity; (16) the use of the WANDAH (Writing Aid AND Author's Helper) system for improving composition; (17) ways of teaching excellence in the community colleges; (19) developing communication skills for the future; (20) the development of good practices in continuing education; (21) confessions of a technologically disabled person; (23) teaching mathematics using sports coaching techniques; (24) collegial and competitive relations in schools; (25) methods of validating students' positive attitudes towards instructional experiences; (26) the film essay as an educational device; (27) reality testing in the business curriculum; (28) the importance of small details in the educational process; (30) the relationship between class attendance and achievement; (31) the role of questions in instruction; and (33) practices that enhance and restrict faculty motivation. (HB)

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI

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SUANNE D. ROUECHE, EDITOR

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS

VOL. VI
NO. 1

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Editor's note: Those of us who have taught English composition, or history, or subjects in which students have regularly produced written work, can appreciate the humor of this version of European history from the Middle Ages to the present. The author, a veteran of the university classroom, has assembled fragments of student papers--papers collected in his history classes over a five-year period--into this chronological narrative.

A HISTORY OF THE PAST: LIFE REEKED WITH JOY

History, as we know, is always bias, because human beings have to be studied by other human beings, not by independent observers of another species.

During the Middle Ages, everybody was middle aged. Church and state were co-operatic. Middle Evil society was made up of monks, lords, and surfs. It is unfortunate that we do not have a medivel European laid out on a table before us, ready for dissection. After a revival of infantile commerce slowly creeped into Europe, merchants appeared. Some were sitters and some were drifters. They roamed from town to town exposing themselves and organized big fairies in the countryside. Mideval people were violent. Murder during this period was nothing. Everybody killed someone. England fought numerously for land in France and ended up wining and losing. The Crusades were a series of military expaditions made by Christians seeking to free the holy land (the "Home Town" of Christ) from the Islams.

In the 1400 hundreds most Englishmen were perpendicular. A class of yeowls arose. Finally, Europe caught the Black Death. The bubonic plague is a social disease in the sense that it can be transmitted by intercourse and other etceteras. It was spread from port to port by inflected rats. Victims of the Black Death grew boobs on their necks. The plague also helped the emergance of the English language as the national language of England, France and Italy.

The Middle Ages slimpared to a halt. The renasence bolted in from the blue. Life reeked with joy. Italy became robust, and more individuals felt the value of their human being. Italy, of course, was much closer to the rest of the world, thanks to northern Europe. Man was determined to civilise himself and his brothers, even if heads had to roll! It became sheik to be educated. Art was on a more associated level. Europe was full of incredable churches with great art bulging out their doors. Renaissance merchants were beautiful and almost lifelike.

The Reformation happened when German nobles resented the idea that tithes were going to Papal France or the Pope thus enriching Catholic coiffures. Traditions had become oppressive so they too were crushed in the wake of man's quest for ressurection above the not-just-social beast he had become. An angry Martin Luther nailed 95 theocrats to a church door. Theologically, Luthar was into reorientation mutation. Calvinism was the most convenient religion since the days of the ancients. Anabaptist services tended to be migratory. The Popes, of course, were usually Catholic. Monks went right on seeing themselves as worms. The last Jesuit priest died in the 19th century.

After the refirmation were wars both foreign and infernal. If the Spanish could gain the Netherlands they would have a stronghold throughout northern Europe which would include their posetions in Italy, Burgangy, central Europe and India thus serrounding France. The German Emperor's lower passage was blocked by the French for years and years.

Louis XIV became King of the Sun. He gave the people food and artillery. If he didn't like someone, he sent them to the gallows to row for the rest of their lives. Vauban was the royal minister of flirtation. In Russia the 17th century was known as the time of the bounding of the serfs. Russian nobles wore clothes only to humour Peter the Great. Peter filled his government with accidental people and built a new capital near the European boarder. Orthodox priests became government antennae.

The enlightenment was a reasonable time. Voltare wrote a book called *Candy* that got him into trouble with Frederick the Great. Philosophers were unknown yet, and the fundamental stake was one of religious toleration slightly confused with defeatism. France was in a very serious state. Taxation was a great drain on the state budget. The French revolution was accomplished before it happened. The revolution evolved through monarchial, republican and tolarian phases until it catapulted into Napolean. Napolean was ill with bladder problems and was very tense and unrestrained.

History, a record of things left behind by past generations, started in 1815. Throughout the comparatively radical years 1815-1870 the western European continent was undergoing a Rampant period of economic modification. Industrialization was precipitating in England. Problems were so complexicated that in Paris, out of a city population of one million people, two million able bodies were on the loose.

Great Britain, the USA and other European countrys had demicratic leanings. The middle class was tired and needed a rest. The old order could see the lid holding down new ideas beginning to shake. Among the goals of the chartists were universal suferage and an anal parliment. Voting was to be done by ballad.

A new time zone of national unification roared over the horizon. Founder of the new Italy was Cavour, an intelligent Sardine from the north. Nationalism aided Itally because nationalism is the growth of an army. We can see that nationalism succeeded for Itally because of France's big army. Napoleon III-IV mounted the French thrown. One thinks of Napoleon III as a live extension of the late, but great, Napoleon. Here too was the new Germany: loud, bold, vulgar and full of reality.

Culture fomented from Europe's tip to its top. Richard Strauss, who was violent but methodical like his wife made him, plunged into vicious and perverse plays. Dramatized were adventures in seduction and abortion. Music reeked with reality. Wagner was master of music, and people did not forget his contribution. When he died they labeled his seat "historical." Other countries had their own artists. France had Chekhov.

World War I broke out around 1912-1914. Germany was on one side of France and Russia was on the other. At war people get killed, and then they aren't people any more, but friends. Peace was proclaimed at Versigh, which was attended by George Loid, Primal Minister of England. President Wilson arrived with 14 pointers. In 1937 Lenin revolted Russia. Communism raged among the peasants, and the civil war "team colours" were red and white.

Germany was displaced after WWI. This gave rise to Hitler. Germany was morbidly overexcited and unbalanced. Berlin became the decadent capital, where all forms of sexual deprivations were practised. A huge anti-semantic movement arose. Attractive slogans like "death to all Jews" were used by governmental groups. Hitler remilitarized the Rineland over a squirmish between Germany and France. The appeasers were blinded by the great red of the Soviets. Moosealini rested his foundations on eight million bayonets and invaded Hi Lee Salasy. Germany invaded Poland, France invaded Belgium, and Russsia invaded everybody. War screeched to an end when a nukuleer explosion was dropped on Heroshima. A whole generation had been wipe out in two world wars, and their forlorne families were left to pick up the peaces.

According to Fromm, individuation began historically in medieval times. This was a period of small childhood. There is increasing experience as adolescence experiences its life development. The last stage is us.

Compiled by Anders Henriksson
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For further information, see article by the same title, *The Wilson Quarterly*, Spring, 1983. Copyright 1983 by the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars.

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI NO. 2

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PART-TIME FACULTY: AN EXXON/VIRGINIA STUDY

A recent Exxon/University of Virginia study of part-time faculty sought to determine *who* part-timers are in the 1980's (classifying them by their career goals or labor-supply objectives) and what *motivations* they have for teaching on a part-time basis. One hundred four part-time faculty were interviewed in group sessions at fourteen different colleges.

Who are the part-timers?

Researchers used an existing identifying taxonomy (Tuckman, 1978) to characterize part-time faculty: (1) semi-retired, (2) students (full-time degree-seeking students), (3) hopeful full-timers, (4) full-mooners (holding a full-time job of 35 hours or more a week elsewhere), (5) homeworkers (working to take care of a relative or friend), (6) part-mooners (holding two or more part-time jobs of less than 35 hours per week), (7) unknown or indeterminant. Two of Exxon/Virginia's findings differed significantly from Tuckman's: full-mooners represented over half (51.9 percent) of the Exxon/Virginia group (compared to Tuckman's 27.6 percent), and few students (1.9 percent) were teaching part-time (compared to Tuckman's 21.2 percent). (A possible explanation for this significant difference is that Tuckman's student category included different selection criteria than did Exxon/Virginia's. It (1) included all those part-time faculty who were registered for a degree program in a department other than their teaching department and (2) did not specify full or part-time student status).

What motivates part-timers to teach?

Researchers found that motivations for part-time teaching clustered into four categories: *intrinsic, professional, careerist,* and *economic motivations* (ranked in order of most frequent responses). The strongest motivation for teaching part-time was intrinsic--a quest for personal satisfaction, a sense of fulfillment and accomplishment, and a wish to make a contribution to humanity. Others mentioned they taught to escape a boring or unstimulating environment. Others sought the prestige that comes with teaching at the college level. Overall, they saw teaching as a form of recreation, even therapy.

Intrinsic--Among those intrinsically motivated teachers were: public school teachers who enjoyed the change to an adult student population, others who enjoyed having a mix of age groups and occupations together in a classroom, mothers who enjoyed the time with adults. Many enjoyed the academic involvement with colleagues, felt a sense of renewal, or enjoyed the advantages of teaching without the disadvantages of departmental politics or pressures to perform other departmental duties.

Professional--Individuals claiming professional motivations were typically those who worked full-time in another, usually non-academic, profession. They believed that they could make significant contributions to students by bringing current practices to the classroom and that they could stay abreast of theoretical developments in their profession through teaching. As well, they saw their teaching as a way to meet promising students with professional potential. Above all, their part-time teaching was an extension of their vocation or profession.

Careerist--Individuals with careerist motivations were part-timers wishing to work full-time in college teaching but as yet unable to find full-time employment there. They hoped that teaching part-time would provide them with a good chance of securing any full-time position that came available. (This study found that part-time positions rarely lead to full-time employment.) Many taught part-time at several colleges, making less money than a full-timer teaching the same number of courses, receiving less benefits than the full-timer, and feeling hostile that they must teach under these conditions. Often, however, they appreciated the lack of numerous and various duties and pressures that accompany full-time teaching. Others with careerist motivations were in domestic or situational positions that relegated them to part-time status: spouses following their mates and being unable to find full-time positions, spouses in roles of "faculty wife" or "faculty husband" (even where nepotism policies were no longer in force, spouses of teachers were infrequently considered for available positions).

Economic--Finally, economic motivations were reasons for teaching part-time. But faculty infrequently mentioned money and typically not until the interviewer specifically asked about it. Low pay for part-time teaching and the discovery (from other normative data) that few part-timers depended upon it as a significant supplement to their family income could explain its low priority; however, even those who were admittedly more dependent upon the extra income noted that money was not their only motive for teaching.

Overall, most part-timers gave multiple reasons for teaching. Whether or not individuals with these characteristics can continue to find employment is dependent upon the trends in institutional policies affecting the employment of part-time staff.

Principles for Policy Design

Researchers addressed some important public and institutional issues useful in generating some guiding principles for designing policy: quality, access, efficiency, responsibility, and fairness.

Quality--Themes from research literature suggest that the best teaching is done by teachers who are actively engaged in their subject matter, who are in instructional settings which permit or encourage informal contacts between students and faculty, and who get feedback from student evaluations (with accompanying interpretive consultation). In light of these themes, findings from this study are disturbing. Use of part-time faculty *often* ignores these ingredients for quality teaching; for example, no special attention is given to their personal or professional characteristics at the time of hiring (availability is often most important), and they receive little or no support for teaching improvement (full-time teachers do not include them in curriculum and instructional discussions, and hourly pay--or some similar scale--does not encourage them to spend extra time on campus with students or colleagues). Because teaching effectiveness depends in large part upon the teacher's personal qualities, researchers for this study recommend that institutions pay careful attention, during the recruitment and hiring processes, to an instructor's potential classroom behaviors. Using part-time instructors demands that an institution clearly identify what contributions it expects *each instructor* to make and then hire on those bases. Availability, cost, and academic credentials should be secondary considerations.

Access--Part-timers can bring expertise from the field into the college, can improve an institution's options for offering classes at odd hours, and can serve as linkages between students and potential employment. These contributions serve to make the institution more accessible to students. Increasing access, however, is dangerous when it is accomplished without planning and deliberate effort. Unfortunately, institutions often hire greater numbers of part-timers to expand the student population; and the result of the hurried activity is fragmented courses and programs, unstable financing, questionable instructional quality, and pursuit of instructional fads. Researchers recommend that economic concerns should not dictate the hiring of part-timers; academic and programmatic issues should. Using part-timers to staff programs that, in turn, will expand access is a wise institutional decision; making more courses available to more students is a realistic goal. However, it should be a goal set in the context of sound academic plans, not played out in a numbers game.

Efficiency--Efficiency is one measure of an institution's cost effectiveness. Part-timers are employed for academic and economic reasons. Assessments of cost of part-time faculty suggest that direct costs are reduced in the short run but that indirect costs can be significantly high. Administrative overhead is the most obvious indirect cost: (1) recruitment and supervision of part-timers require expenditures of time and effort; (2) academic programs become fragmented as part-timers, uninvolved with day-to-day decisions about courses and programs, weaken feedback linkages among instructors; (3) high turnover among part-timers increases amount of energy and time expended in familiarizing new staff with required information; and, finally, full-time and part-time faculty tend to share few common interests and often openly compete over department, program, or course issues. Researchers suggest that efficient use of part-timers will occur when institutions use them to achieve planned productive ends.

Responsibility--Findings indicated that there is an alarming lack of institutional policy or accountability for part-time faculty employment. It is common to find inaccurate counts of currently-employed part-timers and/or lack of procedures for reporting on the level of part-time employment. Researchers note that institutions differ on the content of employment policies for part-timers, but they strongly recommend tightly written agreements with individual faculty members, rather than tightly written policy statements; an institution cannot hope to satisfy all departments and all part-timers. Moreover, contract approval should reside in a central office (preferably the office of the chief academic affairs administrator). This would not impinge upon departmental freedom but would provide an impartial review of hiring decisions, as well as a system for collecting and filing data about contracts and personnel (a system that would lend itself to analysis of trends and developments).

Fairness--While researchers make no specific suggestions about the appropriate content of policy and practice, they do recommend that colleges provide a supportive structure which assures part-time faculty the same human and professional rights accorded any employee, a contract that reflects a meeting of the minds rather than a take-it-or-leave-it arrangement. Although part-time faculty almost universally lack property rights, that is no basis for denying them the individual respect that they deserve.

Abstracted from Chapters 3 and 8 of *Part-Time Faculty in American Higher Education* by David W. Leslie, Samuel E. Kellams, and G. Manny Gunne (New York: Praeger, 1982).

Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI NO. 5

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CLASSROOM MINUTES: A VALUABLE TEACHING DEVICE

Keeping minutes of class meetings has instructional value on both a daily and a long-term basis for individual students, for the class as a whole, and for the instructor. Minutes represent a formal, systematic way of recording class sessions, but the fringe benefits are greater than the simple mastery of keeping minutes.

Benefits to the Instructor

As each class begins with the reading of the minutes from the previous class, the instructor is reminded of the materials that were covered in the previous session. Sometimes the minutes record forgotten or surprising information because the lecture produced significant questions or comments that were not recorded in the lecture notes. As well, minutes are valuable for keeping track of the progress of individual classes in the course syllabus.

Furthermore, it is important that the instructor hears a student's version of what happened in the previous class. It is a way of monitoring (1) how well that particular student understood what occurred or had been discussed and (2) how well the entire class assimilated the information, as evidenced by their reactions to the reading of the minutes. The minutes become a springboard for discussion of the important *learned* material prior to beginning the new class session. If the instructor finds that the class did not adequately understand the content, a discussion for content clarification can be initiated.

Beyond the critical short term benefits for the instructor--records of class discussions and accomplishments in the previous session, opportunities to hear about these accomplishments from an individual student's vantage point, analysis of all students' understanding of the material, and opportunity to take corrective action about poorly learned material--there are opportunities for self-evaluation. Minutes provide records about classes that have been well-structured and about those that could have been better managed, about the topics that were well-received and well-covered, as well as those that were in need of improvement. They also provide a means by which to assess classroom dynamics: relatively informal classes may result in haphazard, disjointed presentations and reception. Minutes help isolate problems in improving classroom management strategies.

Benefits for the Class

Hearing the minutes read serves to bring students' wandering minds toward a shared common point, allows the students to gradually ease into the classroom setting, provides students with a review of the previous class's activities and the covered material, and allows them to review and evaluate how well they understood the content. Missed information (either as a result of absence or inattention) can be obtained during the reading; incorrect information can be corrected. Students who must be absent for several consecutive class sessions are able to read the minutes and maintain a more accurate sense of class progress toward covering required material.

As well, reading the minutes aloud helps to establish an element of formality that brings the class to order very quickly. Everyone must be silent in order to hear the reader. Students quickly learn to listen attentively and respectfully because each knows that his turn will come. The sense of formality can extend to naming the instructor in the minutes; those students who may feel comfortable being on a first-name basis with the instructor often find it uncomfortable to refer to the instructor by his first name in the minutes.

Finally, while only one individual per class session is responsible for keeping the minutes, the ongoing project becomes a group effort. Students recognize that they must each contribute to making the minutes as valuable a class record as possible.

Benefits for the Individual Student

While benefits for the instructor and the entire class are significant, benefits for the individual student may be greater. The student must practice the important skills of listening and notetaking, must be able to comprehend what went on in class, organize the notes, select the important information, and accept suggestions for correcting the written record. The skill of keeping minutes is, in and of itself, a valuable skill to develop.

As well, students develop the skill of reading aloud. They receive practice in speaking before a group (although they are allowed to read from their own desks, minimizing the self-conscious nature of the task).

Corrections of and additions to the minutes are made as the reading progresses, with instructor and students interjecting additional comments. Additions and corrections are made in the spirit of improving the record for the class; criticism of the notetaking procedure is to be avoided. The instructor can acknowledge her own instructional mistakes in presenting the material whenever the notes indicate unclear transmission.

Mechanics of Minutes-Keeping

Instructors can improve the minutes-keeping procedure by observing the following suggestions:

1. Be matter-of-fact. The class must know to expect that minutes will always be taken. Instructor attentiveness to the reading is important, as well.

2. Grade the mintues for content, grammar, and appearance. Keeping minutes well should be rewarded; giving credit for merely keeping them is not enough. The result is that the effort in producing them will be increased.

3. Determine the set-up and procedure in advance. Follow a format; for example, include the instructor's name, the student's name, the subject covered, and the date at the top of the page in a standard arrangement. The individual student, however, can be allowed to arrange the contents of the minutes in a format most comfortable or meaningful to him; he may include arrangements of numbered items, outlines, or paragraphs. As well, content covered in the class may help determine the arrangement.

   Students are assigned the minutes-keeping responsibility alphabetically. As the instructor takes roll, the minutes-keeper for the day is identified. This student receives a sheet of carbon paper that he uses to make the instructor a copy of the rough draft; he takes one copy of the draft home to polish. If the student is absent or late for the following session, the instructor can them improvise from the rough draft. (Under these circumstances, the student does not receive a grade or credit for the assignment.) When the polished minutes are read, the instructor and class make corrections, and the student makes the needed changes before the next class session and submits two copies of the final draft. One copy is graded and returned to the student; the other is placed on file for any student to read.

4. Motivation is important. The instructor can introduce the frightening task of minutes-keeping by discussing the concerns that students--or anyone in any organization--may have about making a record of a group's discussion and activities. A useful strategy is to allow each student to take minutes for the first session, organize them at home, prepare them as minutes, and hand them in as practice in producing the polished papers. The grade that the students receive on this trial run is not recorded, but a grade is given to *inform* the student of strengths and weaknesses in his writing and listening skills. Several papers that present the same information but that use various formats for presenting it are read to the class as acceptable examples for minutes-keeping.

   The students have the advantage of seeing good models, and those students producing less than acceptable minutes benefit from the warning comments and informational grade on this trial paper. Students submitting papers that have been sloppily prepared or torn from a notebook are warned with a low or failing informational grade that their written work must meet standards that do not tolerate such careless work. Furthermore, the submission of trial minutes provides a means by which the instructor can assess the writing and listening skills of the entire class at the beginning of the course.

An Important Instructional Tool

Minutes-keeping is an appropriate teaching tool for all class types. Classes with little discussion--for example, classes in a laboratory or studio setting--can be recorded in minutes that merely reflect a procedure or technique applied that day. Discussion and/or lecture classes can be recorded by a synthesis of major and minor points. Finally, minutes-keeping can serve as a technique for helping institute the practice of writing across the college curriculum--one effort to address a current literacy issue of grave concern to all college educators.

Abstracted with permission from "Classroom Minutes: A Valuable Teaching Device," by Edna Zwick Boris, in *Improving College and University Teaching*, Volume 31, Number 2, Spring, 1983, pp. 70-73.

For further information, contact the author.

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI NO. 7

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STUDENT DEVELOPMENT THROUGH GENERAL EDUCATION

Throughout the land, institutions of higher education are embroiled in one of the greatest and most persistent internal philosophical clashes of all time. It is not a debate of recent origin; its roots go back to before the turn of the century. Over the years, the issue has received the attention of such well-respected authoritative groups as President Truman's Commission on Higher Education, the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Yet the debate continues.

The participants in this contest are the faculties of our colleges and universities--subject matter *specialists* divided over the issue of *general* education. What is "general education"? What brought it about? For whom is it designed? When should it be experienced? How is it delivered? Why is the issue of such intense interest in higher education?

The Concept. General education has been variously defined as the necessary prerequisite for specialized study; a corrective to the over-emphasis of specialization; the necessary rudiments for common discourse; the universals of human culture; an integrative experience underlining the unity of knowledge; knowledge of the world around us; preparation for participation in a democratic society; learning common to all students; and liberal education. General education has also been defined by what it is not: it is not specialized; not vocational; not an introduction to the disciplines as a first step in specialization; not merely being able to read, write, and do arithmetic. It is little wonder that we debate its value. We can't even agree on what it is.

A Historical Perspective. The state of knowledge at the time the first colleges were established in our country was such that it was possible to teach a broad-ranging curriculum in a comprehensive fashion, enabling students of that period to acquire both breadth and depth of knowledge. As new subjects were added to the colonial curriculum in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, some educators argued for maintaining a common element in the curriculum. As the knowledge explosion continued, institutions of higher education responded by departmentalizing and increasing both the number and specialization of course offerings.

At first, students were free to choose courses they desired. As a result, many of them concentrated their studies in narrow areas of specialization. In response to "over-specialization" and an erosion of the common elements in a college education, educators attempted to insure a degree of breadth in the educational experience by prescribing certain courses of study.

Education, then, can be thought of as being comprised of special (depth) and general (breadth) components. "General education," according to the Truman Commission on Higher Education, has come to mean those phases of non-specialized and non-vocational learning which should be the common experience of all educated men and women.

Relationship to Career Success. Clearly, skills which must be acquired for vocational preparation lie outside the Truman Commission definition of general education. However, before we pass over this area too quickly, we should note that the most consistent research findings reveal that the amount of knowledge one acquires in the specific content area is generally unrelated to even marginally acceptable performance in an occupation. Representatives from the world of work consistently tell us that the development of specific cognitive skills is only part of a holistic education. In fact, employers rate entry-level job skills below ten other traits as a predictor of job success. Perhaps we should look to general education to help develop these other traits and abilities. There is nothing intrinsic to general education that requires it to be impractical. In fact, Levine, in the *Handbook on Undergraduate Curriculum*, contends that it might be the best economic value in the long run. Positive affective behavior can and should be developed throughout the curricula.

Relationship to Life Needs. A student develoment approach to general education focuses on preparing students to live in a society that demands a combination of various areas of knowledge and social growth. Capabilities and insights which should be developed by higher education include the abilities to think and to communicate clearly and effectively both orally and in writing, to use mathematics, to understand the modes of inquiry of the major disciplines, to be aware of other cultures and times, to achieve insights gained through experience in thinking about ethical problems, and to develop the capacity for self-understanding. College-educated persons

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should be able to use these knowledges and insights when evaluating, appreciating, and interacting with the physical environment and the diverse society in which they live.

Relationship to Life-Long Learning. A frequent criticism of general education is its timing. General education is usually appreciated more by middle-aged and older people than by the eighteen- to twenty-two-year-olds whose most immediate need is gainful employment. Levine responds to this criticism by saying that society cannot afford to give jobs to people who are unaware of the ethical dilemmas and social implications of their jobs and in the world around them. The competencies identified by employers as important for job success would support the contention that a framework of general education should be incorporated into occupational curricula. Of course, once this basic framework is developed, the graduate should be permitted to re-enter the educational system at any point to continue the life-long process of education.

Methods of Delivery. The delivery of general education at American colleges and universities falls into three broad categories: core curricula, distribution requirements, and free electives. Core general education programs require a common, often interdisciplinary, series of courses of all students. This system, which is found at approximately ten percent of American colleges, is best suited to homogeneous student bodies. With heterogeneous students, the core curriculum runs the risk of duplicating the previous learning of the most advanced students and being too rigorous for the least well-prepared student.

Of all of the forms of general education, distribution requirements are the most common. Eighty-five percent of all colleges prescribe distributive requirements. Courses are generally required in the areas of natural science, social science, humanities, and basic skills. This system can range from a tightly prescribed program, not offering students much more selection of courses than the core curriculum, to minimally prescribed distribution requirements which offer students a wide choice of courses within each category. Although students are exposed to various fields of knowledge and methods of inquiry by these requirements and electives, there is generally little opportunity for students to integrate their learning. Too much free election in general education leads to a fragmented and superficial experience.

Curricular Revision. Of greater impact than the delivery system will be the curricular revisions necessary to meet the goals of general education. We must examine the content of our courses with the view of developing the student. Any attempt to inculcate students with sample bits of knowledge gleaned from all disciplines will surely result in failure. Instead, students should be educated in the methods of inquiry and modes of thought common to groups of disciplines. General education courses should emphasize basic principles, concepts, and methodologies rather than specific content which is supported only by tradition. Course content must have utility to students and should be relevant to their lives.

Students should be provided ample opportunities throughout their college experience to use the skills developed during their general education. Few courses of instruction could not incorporate writing assignments, for example, and many subjects have at least some dimensions that can be appropriately explored with mathematics. Use of the visual, literary, and performing arts to express understanding of a subject is sometimes appropriate. A thoroughly articulated general education program accommodates students' needs to exercise all of their learning skills frequently.

The Debate. The philosophical pendulum does not swing freely, nor are needed curriculum changes made easily. The issues of general education and curricular change are recurring topics on curriculum committee agendas year after year. We have already addressed some of the reasons for our inability to reach resolution on the value and implementation of a plan for general education: the concept is not well understood, and definitions have been propounded which are so broad that every course could fit into the general education scheme.

An increasing number of faculty members are of the opinion, however, that we should not abrogate our responsibility to guide students in their development. They believe that general education is important enough to make room for it even in highly impacted curricula, and, where that is not possible, to infuse it into existing courses. Moreover, we must move away from content-laden courses in general education toward those which teach students a way of thinking and a process by which knowledge is gained. If we can instill in students this framework through general education, we will be providing them with valuable skills for success throughout life.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI NO. 9

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IMPROVING EDUCATION THROUGH COLLABORATION

From 1979 through 1982, the Exxon Education Foundation and the National Endowment for the Humanities funded four workshops designed to enhance the development of foreign language and literature departments. The workshops were designed to provide chairmen with assistance in revising curriculum toward proficiency testing, better teaching of culture and literature, and better management of foreign language and literature departments. They provided a fertile ground for collaboration among foreign language and literature faculty and a working model for meeting the challenges of improving faculty development efforts across academic sectors.

"Strengthening the Humanities Through Foreign Language and Literature Studies" is the result of those efforts. This project is establishing a model for collaborative faculty development based on the county medical society and bar association--monthly meetings offering cost-effective ways for professionals to keep up-to-date in their fields.

Most teachers do not meet regularly to keep each other up-to-date in their field and to help assure high quality professional work by their colleagues. College and high school teachers have not traditionally functioned like colleagues; rather, they often divide themselves into groups according to the age level of the students they teach. This lack of continuous collaboration among teachers in the same field tends to cut them away from the intellectual dimensions of the subject area they teach, and it keeps college teachers uninformed about the problems of high school students and about the programs they pursue. High school and college curricula suffer from needless repetitions and the gaps that frustrate teachers and students alike.

Each of the 70 collaborative faculty groups launched during this project draws together teachers from the schools, community colleges, and universities in a local area who teach the same subject. Meeting regularly as colleagues, faculty members keep each other up-to-date in their fields, maintain the spirit of intellectual inquiry crucial to good teaching, and focus on faculty working together toward common goals. The National Endowment for the Humanities, the Rockefeller Foundation, the MacArthur Foundation, the Christian Johnson Endeavor Foundation, the Southern Education Foundation, and the University of Pennsylvania granted $490,000 over a two-year period to fund this project. The Exxon Education Foundation continues to provide partial support. Dr. Claire Guadiani, of the University of Pennsylvania, is piloting this project among foreign language and literature faculty during a two-year period. It will be expanded eventually to include English and history, math and science.

Project Objectives

The project aims to:

1. improve teaching and learning in each of the academic disciplines by creating new and permanent alliances among faculty in the schools and post-secondary institutions;
2. change the culture of American education, which currently discourages faculty teaching in post-secondary institutions from working as colleagues with faculty teaching in the schools;
3. make ongoing professional education for faculty a matter of local and regional responsibility shared by those who teach each subject area.

Participants

Seventy groups of faculty with members from 300 private schools and school districts participate in the project; more than 2,000 teachers are currently collaborative group members in 36 states and the Virgin Islands.

Local Collaborative Group Meetings

Monthly or bimonthly meetings frequently are divided into two segments:

1. keeping professionals up-to-date through journal reading: Faculty members take turns presenting short abstracts of the major articles in journals which the group has selected as important.

2. planning for improvements: Colleagues select one or two subjects of common concern. Each meeting includes a special program focused on that concern(s)--panel discussions, review of related research data, demonstration classes, and other approaches to help the group address the concern together as a community of scholars.

The National Conferences: Continuing the Collaboration

The 70 collaborative groups have been designated as regional centers of ongoing professional development for foreign language and literature faculty. Each group has a consultant and receives guidance in establishing itself and developing a regional resource library for teachers. The groups initially convened during the Spring term of 1983 and continue to meet on a monthly or bimonthly basis.

During the 1983-84 academic year, each group is sending a five-person team to one of four national conferences. The team will include three foreign language faculty members who must represent both secondary and post-secondary levels and one administrator from each level. Each group will have been working together as a collaborative unit for six months or more by the time its representatives attend the conference.

At the conference, each team will:

1. learn more about the nature and practice of school-college collaboration;
2. meet other administrators and faculty members responsible for strengthening education in their institutions and in their regions;
3. learn about the central issues and methods in foreign languages and literatures from leading teachers and scholars in that field;
4. work with its assigned consultant in making action plans to implement improvements in teaching of foreign languages and literatures in its locality;
5. learn about funding sources for the humanities, regional resource libraries, and articulation projects;
6. meet and make recommendations to conference observers from the major foundations, state-based NEH committees, and state education offices.

The fifteen conference sessions are covering central issues and practices in the foreign language and literature discipline as well as offering case studies of successful programs. Sessions are videotaped; and each team receives a complete set, accompanied by printed outlines, bibliographies, and articles written by presenters.

Results of the Four National Conferences

As a direct result of the conference sessions and the consulting sessions, each team returns to its group with information, ideas, and plans which help improve humanities education in its locality:

1. Each group will develop a permanent resource library to be situated in a conveniently located institution in the locality. Materials purchased with $200 pledged by the schools in the group's service area and the set of conference videotapes will be housed there.
2. Articulation of foreign language and literature programming will improve.
3. Faculty will develop a stronger sense of self-esteem because of their experience as members of a regional/national community of professionals committed to the improvement of their discipline.
4. Administrators will know about the central place of foreign languages and literatures in the humanities curriculum and in the educational enterprise in general.
5. Project participants and staff will provide an update to officers of the national professional associations with which they are involved.

Results of the Project

When this project ends in September, 1984, the 70 participating groups will continue to work toward project goals of improving the educational enterprise. If successful, by April, 1986, they will have established approximately 140 additional collaborative professional groups of foreign language and literature faculty and 70 groups in other disciplines. These groups will continue to offer cost-effective, locally-based professional development opportunities for faculty in humanities disciplines--regardless of the level at which they teach.

For further information, please contact Dr. Claire Gaudiani, 210 Logan Hall, University of Pennsylvania, 19104 (215) 898-3112.

Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INTRA-UNIVERSITY VISITING PROFESSORSHIPS FOR FACULTY RENEWAL AND DEVELOPMENT

Consider John Doe, a 50-year-old Professor of Psychology. In a recent interview, John began by saying he had just come from the hospital where he had taken his 82-year-old mother. "It filled me with foreboding. This is what awaits all of us." John confessed that he had been anxious about becoming "dead wood" at the university; "It scares me. Will I become lazy and stagnant?" He is in the midst of a very successful career as a scholar and teacher of psychology. For several years he concentrated on research and writing and published several books and articles in his field. "I burned out on that," he says, "and found administration was a way to grow. But after five years as chairman of the department, I burned out on administration. So what do I do now?"

What can a university do to help its faculty keep vital and creative in a time of reductions in budgets and declining morale? The University of Kansas has developed a program that can be part of the answer. The program is called "Intra-University Visiting Professorships for Faculty Renewal and Development."

The visiting professor program was the answer for John Doe. He had an interest in psychology and the law, so he became a visiting professor at the Kansas Law School. During the year, he audited four courses and lectured in courses at the Law School; he also developed a course in Psychology and the Law which he is now teaching in the Psychology Department, with students from psychology and pre-law. He was invited to lead a session on teaching the Psychology and Law course at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association. His interest in a new topic has been a source of genuine renewal--he is at work on a book on the subject and has thrown himself into the work with renewed energy and interest. "I have new ideas. I find I can still work hard and with zest. My vigor has not diminished. My teaching and research are as good as ever and perhaps better. I can still contribute!" As a result of the experience as a visiting professor, John is not facing the years before retirement with foreboding but with excitement. He says, "The program has been terrific for me."

The visiting professorships are designed to meet both University and faculty needs in light of reduced state appropriations, stable or declining enrollments, and decreases in grant funds. Shifts in faculty resources are imperative as changes in students' interests and society's needs cannot be met by additions of new faculty. Older faculty must contend with a decline in traditional means of sustaining intellectual vitality--e.g., visiting professorships, attendance at professional meetings, sabbatical leaves, and funds for research. Many "faculty development" programs implemented with grant funds have been severely curtailed or eliminated entirely under budgetary pressures. Today's challenge is to find ways to sustain creativity, imagination, and zest in ways that are realistic in circumstances of financial restraint. The program at the University of Kansas--now in its third year--is a response to this challenge. Kansas received a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation to support one month of the summer salary for each visiting professor for the first two years of the program; the Kansas University Endowment Association has assumed this cost.

The Visiting Professorship Program

Six faculty are selected as visiting professors each year; applicants for these positions submit a proposal outlining the year's plan and anticipated outcomes of the year's activities. The typical plan is that a professor will audit courses in another department or school, will team teach a course with a professor in the host department, and will publish articles or a book on an appropriate topic. The professor has no teaching and committee responsibilities in his home department for one year. The professor's salary continues with no change and is paid by the University. (The professor receive one month's extra salary for summer work in preparation for the visiting year.)

The University supports a one-fourth time teaching assistant who assumes some teaching responsibilities for the absent professor. As well, the visiting professor's colleagues assume some of the professor's departmen-

tal responsibilities. University officials and professors can produce no evidence that, as a result of this staff development effort, students are inconvenienced by program interruptions or unavailable professors. In fact, the Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs says that the program has had "more impact for the dollar than [any other institutional innovation]." She finds that the program continues to be a creative and inexpensive way of offering interesting and renewing alternatives to faculty in a time of diminished opportunities and decreased funding.

Opportunities for Professional Growth

The program has provided faculty with opportunities for significant professional growth. A historian, whose specialty is intellectual history, expanded his interest in a historical perspective of the mind-body problem while serving as a visiting professor in the medical school. Auditing courses and team-teaching a course on modern theories of the relationship of mind and body, he increased his knowledge of the functioning of the human brain, of anatomy and physiology. Another historian, completing a history of children in wartime, spent his year in the Human Development Program. His experiences there will enrich the course he plans to team teach on human development theories and the book he is writing on the history of children during World War II.

As well, professors testify that their experiences helped overcome the obstacles of confining departmental structures and the weaknesses of specialization that are endemic in the modern multiversity. Many relate that professional dialogues with their colleagues of one year do not end with their term as visiting professor. And they relish the interdisciplinary dialogue! "Instead of gossip and complaining about the administration, we can now engage in professional conversation when we are together." An economist reported that the program "helps break down barriers. Now I don't feel bad discussing issues with the math people. I am doing my job . . . !"

Many of the professors and staff who were interviewed in preparation of the project's final report to the Exxon Education Foundation indicated there had been a renewed sense of community within the faculty, in spite of the small numbers involved in the program. "Our knowledge is over-departmentalized; more interdisciplinary work would strengthen our work." A professor of German literature, whose specialty is German drama, spent a year in the Theatre Department studying drama from the standpoint of production. "I am learning and growing by being in a new 'culture' with its different vocabulary and patterns of thinking and rhythm of work. I study the same material but in less of a compartmentalized way." Another faculty member suggested, "It is sad that it has become a luxury to talk professionally with one's colleagues. Sad, but true."

Several professors said the experience had given them a renewed and heightened sensitivity to student learning problems; they felt they had become better teachers. "I have made changes in my lectures so that they are easier to follow and understand. I had forgotten what it is like to have to sit and listen and learn from a lecture. I have also changed the organization of some of my courses. I believe the year has improved my teaching, simply because I was a student again." Others reported they had learned new teaching techniques. "I not only learned new ways but came to clearer ideas of what my basic objectives are in teaching. Co-teaching made me realize that we do not all have the same objectives, and we need to be clear about our objectives in order to teach well."

Program Outcomes

Significant outcomes of this staff development program include: the addition of new courses to the curriculum, many of them team-taught interdisciplinary courses; the production of numerous articles and books; the development/implementation of one new University program; the first planning stages of a "Center for Language Studies," the collaborative effort of a mathematician and his colleagues in linguistics, computer science and math. But the most significant outcomes of this program are the improvement of morale and the opportunity for renewal that has been provided to faculty. It came along when many faculty members needed a renewing experience, when they had reached a dead-end, when they had settled into a routine that had become deadening, and when they needed a new and different opportunity for restoring self-confidence and vitality.

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THE CLASSROOM QUALITY CIRCLE: A WIDENING ROLE FOR STUDENTS

In recent years the impressive productivity level achieved by Japanese industry has attracted worldwide interest. To the considerable surprise of the Japanese, many of their distinctive techniques which had in the past been derided as "feudalistic" are being studied by Western experts who have been forced by economic necessity to "learn from Japan." Perhaps the single best known and most widely emulated of Japanese imports is the quality control circle. The circle is a method of tapping the hidden resources of the work force by directly involving teams of cooperating workers and managers in the process of planning and problem solving. The concept is designed to give workers a real voice in deciding how their work is to be done, on the premise that people who have genuine input and control will be better motivated to achieve excellence.

Though most existing models of the quality circle are industrial, the idea has begun to spread beyond the factory floor to service establishments, governmental bureaux, and to public school districts. Moreover, David A. Nichols in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* has recently challenged the academic establishment to develop the educational equivalent of the quality circle by embracing a participatory model based upon the Japanese style of decision making. Indeed, if one simply substitutes the word "student" for the term "worker" in the considerable volume of quality circle literature which has been appearing in past months, one becomes aware of how easily the traditionally teacher-centered atmosphere of the classroom may indeed be democratized by the introduction of Japanese concepts of consensus and group management.

Having read with interest such recent best-sellers as Pascale and Athos' *The Art of Japanese Management* and Ouchi's *Theory Z*, I decided (last year) to initiate an ongoing experiment in the classroom use of the quality circle with the expectation of involving my students more directly in the process of their own education. Appropriately, the class was an introductory history of traditional East Asia, with its principal focus upon China and Japan before 1800. For my quality circle I selected eight students who I knew well from previous courses--though I have since discovered that the experiment works equally well with volunteers. The circle met weekly during the one hour lunch break built into our schedule at the Ogontz Campus of the Pennsylvania State University. At the first session we debated expanding the circle to include additional members of the class, but all eight insisted that they preferred the intimacy of a small group. To preclude any suggestion of elitism, however, we decided that each of the eight would keep three members of the class informed about our weekly activities. The circle member would encourage input from each of his three assignees which could in turn be laid for discussion before the QC at its next meeting. The circle thus proved to be wonderfully elastic, as it could be easily stretched from time to time with no loss of intimacy.

At the start I described the purpose of the QC and explained that we were jointly going to explore its potential for improving student and teacher performance. I told them that their input would be crucial and that I would not only accept the group's decision as final in matters affecting classroom management and routine, but that I would also implement all recommendations on which they could agree. I informed them too that I would routinely preview with them material which I intended to teach in the week ahead and that I would solicit their opinions on the optimum method of presentation.

In the beginning it is essential that the group leader--the role obviously assumed by the instructor--draw up a weekly agenda and select those topics which require most immediate attention. This precludes any possibility that circle meetings will degenerate into chat sessions. Thus I began by soliciting advice on specific questions, accepting as final all decisions reached by the group after due deliberation. Students need assurance at the start that the QC is not a form of play-acting but rather a vehicle for achieving a measure of control over their own education. Numerous issues concerned us, major and minor. Should there be extra-credit assignments? What degree of choice should be offered in examinations? Should unannounced quizzes be given occasionally? Were narrowly focused questions in examinations preferable to open-ended ones? Might a research paper be substituted for the final exam? Under what circumstances? Who should be offered such a choice? "A" and "B" students only? Everyone?

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Initially it was I who drew up the weekly agenda and brought up specific questions for resolution. But as the students became more comfortable with me and each other, they too began to introduce subjects for discussion and to provide me spontaneously with feedback about what was or was not effective in the classroom. One of the first of many QC suggestions which I implemented was the distribution of a daily class outline, complete with glossary of important names, dates, and terms. Because of their unfamiliarity with Asian history, the students found both text and lectures occasionally confusing. These problems, discussed within the confines of the QC, led to the recommendation of a daily outline. If its preparation was at times a tedious chore for me, it proved popular with the class, providing students with a guide to the most crucial developments of a particular period, helping them to use the text more efficiently, and enabling absentees to catch up more easily.

Other suggestions proved equally valuable. For example, as a result of a QC discussion about "relevancy," I began to preface class sessions with current news items about China and Japan culled from various publications. Such five-minute preambles acted as a reminder to the class that the descendants of the people we are studying were alive and well and doing important things in the comtemporary world.

Moreover, with details of classroom routine largely settled, the QC began to subject the course itself and my classroom presentation to closer scrutiny. I discovered, to my surprise, that the course was undergoing a subtle transformation. I learned from our QC sessions that students wanted me to bring poems, short stories and art plates to class and to integrate them into my lectures, even at the expense of chronological coverage. My customary preoccupation with political and economic affairs gave way to a more humanistic approach, as the focus of the course was broadened to include the art and poetry of ancient China and Japan. Certainly I never surrendered control of course content to my students. But in teaching, as in life, there are often a number of equally valid approaches. What is important is talking through the alternatives and arriving at a mutually-satisfying understanding about which road to take of the myriad which await exploration.

Is the experiment worth the time and effort it demands? The circle philosophy implies that one half-good idea advanced by an individual can be improved upon incrementally by a group. It is in essence a "bottom-up" philosophy which imposes the heaviest burden upon the instructor who must plan a weekly agenda, respond to the subtleties of group interaction, and on occasion discard familiar classroom procedures and lecture notes.

The benefits of my experiment, however, proved so great that I have continued to use and to refine the QC technique in subsequent terms. Students learn from participation in a QC that they are individually important and that their opinions matter. Equally important is the bonding process which takes place among QC members. Trust, loyalty, and mutual commitment appear to be among the by-products. In practical terms, my eight circle members had a vested interest in making sure that the innovations which they had recommended would be successful in actual practice. Their enthusiasm enlivened the classroom, and their responsiveness transformed its emotional climate, inspiring more passive class members to participate also. Students develop important decision-making skills, along with greater willingness to assume responsibility. They see that there is a direct relationship between voluntary assumption of responsibility and the increased power over outcomes which flows from it. Finally, to end on a practical note, course evaluations were uniformly high, and the grade point average of the experimental class was 2.81 compared with the 2.47 achieved by a previous class taught with traditional methods.

A cautionary note, however, must be sounded. Where a specific body of factual material must be transmitted in a limited time, the QC technique will require modification. I discovered that I did not cover quite as much in purely historical terms as I had previously. Therefore, one must be willing to trade off comprehensive coverage for an increase in student participation and input, a sacrifice less significant in some disciplines than in others.

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FACULTY EVALUATION AS A MEASURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY

The effectiveness and efficiency of community colleges are directly related to how well they utilize their resources. As human capital intensive organizations, community colleges can and should use faculty evaluation as a means for gathering information on the productivity of that human capital investment.

Evaluation is a term meaningful within the context of decision-making; without a judgment no evaluation has taken place. According to Paul Dressel (1976):

> The purpose of systematic evaluation is simply that of bringing to a conscious level and in a form to expedite decision-making, the assumptions and values inherent in educational programs, to relate these to anticipated accomplishments, and to compare these plans with actual functioning and results.

Contemporary purposes of faculty evaluation include: providing information for personnel selection and promotion, providing data for faculty improvement, and helping students make wise decisions about course selection. These purposes suggest that faculty evaluation should serve as a base upon which important college decisions are made. Yet, literature on their assessment has been primarily devoted to program design, development and application, rather than impact.

The concept of productivity implies a relationship between the quantity and quality of results achieved by the community college and the resources invested to accomplish them. If the goal of faculty evaluation is increased productivity, both qualitative and technological factors are important considerations. For example, if an instructor served 30 students in one class last term and served 33 students this term, productivity has risen ten percent. If an instructor serves an additional 30 students through instructional television, productivity has risen 100 percent. If the scores on the final examination for the class rise from last term's mean of 2.5 to this term's 3.0, productivity has risen 10 percent. If the instructor includes new curricular material in the class which better matches the course with the needs of the students' prospective employers, and the placement rate of the educational program rises 10 percent as a result, productivity has also risen commensurately. If that same instructor adopts a systematic procedure for student advisement whereby high risk students receive additional attention, and the attrition rate associated with the program drops as a result, again productivity has risen.

Productivity has two dimensions: effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness concerns the extent to which community college programs achieve their objectives; this presumes that colleges have made decisions about *what* and *how much* they should do. Efficiency concerns the way in which resources are organized to carry out college programs and functions at minimal costs. Faculty, as resources, are subjects of a myriad of financial discussions tied to college efficiency.

Faculty evaluation systems have tended toward instructional evaluation systems, emphasizing the delivery of instruction rather than the responsibilities of the instructor as a subject matter expert. Such evaluation often becomes a futile attempt to judge teaching in all disciplines (with all of their differences in content and instructional settings) to some numerically comparable rating procedure. This overemphasis on instruction as the sole measure of faculty productivity ignores the important relationship between process and product, and it breeds faculty distrust of both administrator and student ratings. The evaluation of instructional delivery, therefore, should be combined with assessment of faculty roles in curriculum, instruction, student advisement, and community service in order to provide a more comprehensive view of faculty performance. All of these functions have direct bearing on organizational effectiveness and efficiency and have measures by which they can and should be evaluated. These measures must, however, be designed to recognize the singular and unique contributions made by each faculty member's expertise, as well as to reflect the shared beliefs about the qualities and indices of good instruction. Indications of *organizational* productivity can be drawn from such evaluations of *individual* productivity.

The more popular evaluation plans identify individual faculty development as their primary purpose. Yet any plan must be judged in terms of the extent to which it improves the college, as well as the performance of the individual instructor and student. The extent to which it contributes to improvement of college services

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should be useful information in measuring college productivity. But, heretofore, evaluation plans have not served as the bases for college change or improvement in effectiveness or as measurement of organizational productivity because colleges have had tremendous difficulty both in identifying community needs and interests and in supplying the community with information about its services.

As well, faculty evaluation plans are only remotely tied to incentives in most community colleges. Faculty pay advancements, promotions, leaves, release time, fellowships and sabbaticals are infrequently tied to an evaluation plan that measures the individual's contribution to the organizational effectiveness. Advancement on salary schedules comes from perseverance (time on the job) or from the random assemblage of college credits. Too often community college reward structures have assumed that raw qualification of all the time devoted to the job is an accurate measure of the learning that occurs through experience. Just as community colleges should grant credit to students from learning accrued through life experience, advancements on the salary schedule can be based upon learning accrued through teaching or work experience. If faculty roles are more clearly defined in terms of performance measures, then prior work or teaching experience can be evaluated according to those measures, and the practice of simply rewarding time on the job (regardless of productivity) can be avoided.

The expertise to measure faculty contributions to organizational productivity does exist. A benefit of a carefully constructed evaluation plan is that it can be used to predict and lead faculty behavior toward more effective community college programming. Like other forms of planning, administrators must see the value in faculty evaluation in order to commit the time and resources to such activities. But in order to use faculty evaluation to improve college effectiveness, the reward structure of the college must first be more closely aligned with the evaluation process: that is, faculty and administrators must see that giving up some of their power to effect decisions--by subjugating the decision to a prescribed set of procedures--will have real pay-offs.

There are, of course, significant overtones to the reshaping of faculty evaluation as a measure of community college productivity. The faculty and administration must see a performance gap--the gap between overall current performance and desired performance of the college. At that point, a faculty evaluation plan (to collect information in light of organizational purpose) can be implemented to provide information for workers so that it may be used to reshape their work behavior. Importantly, such survey-feedback can be an effective intervention for organizational change if the opposition, lack of interest and political pressures are first abated.

Faculty evaluation plans need a purpose beyond simple, vague notions of accountability or of faculty development. The purpose of the faculty evaluation effort can be tied to a clearly articulated strategic plan for the college. Using faculty evaluation as a measure of college productivity has several uses. (1) It can provide an index of progress. As faculty and administration work toward accepted goals--e.g., integrating a general education sequence or adapting curricula to changes in technology--evaluations can serve as a collective indicator of college progress toward those goals. (2) It can guide the development of the college's human resources and be used to develop new standards of performance. (3) It can identify the diversity of available talents and resources. It can focus attention on the elements of successful teaching and determine how these elements might be shared to improve the overall quality of the teaching effort.

To make the distinction between the superior, the adequate, and the inadequate requires a faculty evaluation plan which encompasses more than instruction. It must address all major work functions of each individual faculty member. It should be constructed in such a way as to acknowledge and assess the technical expertise of the faculty. To be comprehensive, it must be formative and summative, ongoing and thorough. The task of a truly effective evaluation plan is simply to describe what the faculty member contributes to the productivity of the college.

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WANDAH: A USER-FRIENDLY INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM

Description of the Problem

Common methods for improving student writing focus on the final product--the composition. Soon after receiving it, the instructor analyzes and evaluates the work and returns it with commentary. The instructor hopes that students will make mental note of the comments and use the analysis to improve their writing. However, a fundamental tenent of the psychology of learning is that immediate corrective feedback is more effective than delayed feedback.

To learn how to provide such instruction, researchers are now examining the writing process as a cognitive problem solving skill, and they are turning to paradigms that have provided insights into problem solving in other disciplines. For example, Scardamalia (1980) noted that:

> Even a casual analysis makes it clear that the number of things that must be dealt with simultaneously in writing is stupendous: handwriting, spelling, punctuation, word choice, syntax, textual connections, purpose organization, clarity, rhythm, euphony, the possible reactions of various possible readers, and so on. To pay conscious attention to all of these would overload the information processing capacity of the most towering intellects.

This problem, referred to here as "writer's overload" does not seem to overwhelm good writers. Poor writers presumably lack either a facility with all of the various subtasks needed, or a "metaplan" for handling the many concurrent demands of the writing task. Effective instruction in writing, therefore, must help remove the burden of "writer's overload" to permit students to concentrate on the structure and organization of the ideas being presented--in essence, to allow students to see the rhetorical problem and attack it productively.

Powerful, easy-to-use personal computers can provide a tool for instruction in composition that can help overcome these problems in three ways: (1) Word processors greatly increase the ease of editing and revising. Words, sentences, paragraphs, even whole pages can be moved about with a minimum of effort. Routine correction of typing errors; insertions and deletion of words, sentences, and paragraphs; and production of final formatted copy can all be done quickly and easily. Clean copies of rough drafts can be printed out with wide margins and ample spacing between lines for pencilled insertions and corrections. Word processors can thus relieve writer's overload. (2) Computer programs can cue revising--helping students to concentrate on the structure, organization, and content of their essays, and to revise thoughtfully at both the semantic and syntactic level. (3) Computer programs can also help students get started in writing. Some students have difficulty getting anything down on paper because they are "blocked" by rigid notions of what it means to write. The computer can help such students put down their ideas and turn off their internal editors.

The Word Processor Writing Project at UCLA, funded by a grant from the Exxon Education Foundation, has developed such a comprehensive microcomputer based system for improving composition. The system is called WANDAH (*W*riting-aid *AND* *A*uthor's *H*elper).

WANDAH is an intelligent instructional system designed to assist writers in all phases of writing--planning and organizing ideas, transcribing ideas into print, and editing and revising. The design of WANDAH draws on three areas of research: First, the analysis of writing as a cognitive problem solving activity; second, modern composition theory and research; third, research on the human-computer interface.

WANDAH has three major components: (1) a word processor designed expressly for on-line composing; (2) a set of prewriting aids to help writers generate ideas and plan their work; and (3) a set of aids to help writers review and revise their work thematically, stylistically, and grammatically.

The WANDAH System

WANDAH is fully developed and has undergone extensive classroom testing. It is a hierarchical, completely integrated system that permits the writer free and easy flow amongst its various parts via an extensive menu system. WANDAH has the following special features:

THE WORD PROCESSOR. A "user-friendly" word processor especially designed to facilitate composing is the heart of the WANDAH system. Much care was taken in designing WANDAH's word processor to create a

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system that is easy to learn and to use. WANDAH has an on-line tutorial, an extensive menu system, an on-line help system, and specially-labeled function keys. It uses the common expressions of English composition rather than computer jargon. For example, it talks of writing and saving papers rather than files, of erasing rather than deleting. The word processor itself is a full screen editor with one or two "windows" onto the text. This allows students to have an outline in one window and their papers on the other, or two parts of the same paper, or two different papers on the screen at one time.

PREWRITING PROGRAMS. WANDAH presents a variety of prewriting aids to suit different writing and teaching styles. Writers can use the aids at any time and in any combination.

1. Nutshelling--This aid prompts the writer to type the purpose and audience of the paper and compose a summary of its main ideas.
2. Invisible Writing--Many writers have trouble overcoming the urge to edit each line as it is composed. This program turns off the screen so that writers cannot see the text. The purpose is to "unblock" the writing process: unable to see the actual words, they must keep their ideas and structure in mind.
3. Freewriting--The program urges writers to keep typing without pause; the screen blinks if the writer stops typing for more than a few seconds. Writers may not correct errors or edit while they are freewriting.
4. Planning--This aid asks the writer for the title and main idea (thesis) of the paper, and then for arguments supporting it and possible counter arguments. Once the writer has supplied these elements, the program allows the writer to select and organize the arguments into a coherent outline.

For these prewriting exercises, the work may be saved, edited, or expanded with the word processor.

REVIEWING AND REVISING AIDS. Once the writer has created some text--whether a complete draft or only a portion--he or she can subject it to one of the four sets of reviewing and revising aids.

1. Revising for Mechanics--This aid goes over the text and highlights the following common problems:
   a. Punctuation--points out unpaired parentheses, quotation marks, and brackets, as well as possible improper placement of punctuation (e.g., periods, commas) within them.
   b. Word Usage--highlights words that inexperienced writers often confuse or misuse. The writer may request an on-line explanation of the possible difficulty.
   c. Spelling Checker--checks words in text against a stored dictionary, identifies unrecognized words.
2. Revising for Style--This aid helps writers see certain stylistic features of their texts: abstract words, prepositional phrases, selected gender-specific (and possibly sexist) nouns, "be" verbs, and possible nominalizations. It provides an analysis of sentence and paragraph length. Printouts of analyses may be obtained.
3. Revising for Organization--These aids help writers analyze the organization of their work and provide individual printouts.
   a. Nutshelling--This aid tells the writer to compose a nutshell without viewing the draft.
   b. Summary Outline--WANDAH presents two outline choices. The writer may receive an outline made up of the first sentence in each paragraph, or the writer may pick the *one* sentence out of each paragraph that best presents the paragraph's main idea.
   c. Transition words--This aid highlights more than 200 selected transition words and phrases and asks the writer to consider if the paper contains smooth transitions between ideas and points. It highlights nearly 50 pronouns, either alone or together with the transition words and phrases.
4. Commenting Facility--Writers need readers, and knowing how readers react to a written piece can help writers improve their writing. The commenting aid allows student writers to read each other's work and make comments. Writing teachers or other reviewers may also use this aid to insert comments into papers.

WANDAH's target populations include high school and college composition students, as well as writers in non-academic settings. Written in UCSD Pascal, WANDAH is transportable to a variety of microcomputers.

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS

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WANTED: TEACHING EXCELLENCE IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Over two decades ago, I entered the community college field; there I found great commitment to quality of teaching. Those of us in community colleges knew that students leaving our colleges and entering transfer institutions did well there; and in light of the fact that often these were students who would not have been accepted at senior institutions as freshmen, we thought that teaching at the community college level must be exceptional. As a probable cause of this exceptional teaching, we pointed to recruitment and hiring of teachers who were committed to excellence in the classroom. It was in 1968 that I wrote an article *Improving College and University Teaching* in which I called for documentation or *evidence* that community colleges were doing what they said they were doing. Now (and over the past ten years or so) I hear few community college claims of teaching excellence.

It is understandable, in light of institutional research findings, that few such claims are being made: (1) it is common for freshman attrition rates in community colleges to exceed 50 percent; (2) there are colleges in which the attrition rate *during registration* reaches 10 or 15 percent; (3) most colleges do not collect data about enrollment and course completion--how many students enrolled, how many successfully completed courses, how many were enrolled a second semester, how many pursued degrees and graduated; (4) many colleges have upwards of 50 percent of the students in any class receiving non-productive grades--I, W, Q, X, Y, P--and failing to persist to final course completion in any other semester. Finally, strong evidence indicates that community college students are no longer doing well in senior transfer institutions (Cohen and Brawer, 1982). (However, a recent Arizona study found that Arizona community college transfer students do well in Arizona universities; see Richardson and Doucette, May, 1982, *Community and Junior College Journal*.)

There are important findings from recent educational research that, I believe, help explain this state of affairs; I cite several here. Large majorities of students do not ever buy the course textbook, citing that they do not need to read the text to pass the course. Observations often document that teachers rarely refer to the text, and they take their exam questions from hand-outs or board work, the board work is accompanied by comments such as "Write this down; it is very important" (Roueche and Comstock, 1981). Preparing for exams is a matter of memorizing for short answer, fill-in-the-blank, multiple-choice, or true or false questions; regurgitation of disjointed fragments of information is common. Essay examinations are rare and additional written assignments beyond examinations are even more infrequent.

Students learn from these instructional procedures that reading and writing are not required skills for academic success. In collecting hundreds of student papers written at both the community college and senior college levels, I have documented that grades of A and B rarely require that the student demonstrate acceptable language usage. Often the instructor merely acknowledges that the student understood the concept or had the appropriate information and dismisses the fact that the essay is poorly written. Sometimes there is further instructor comment that the English department should be doing a better job in order that he would not have to face the impossible task of teaching both his subject and composition!

The truth is that it is everybody's responsibility to teach correct language usage. Students, indeed everyone, need verbal skills for successful job entry and upward economic mobility. Students should be required to read, to write, and hence to problem-solve. Homework should be required, corrected, and returned promptly. Written assignments must become an integral part of all college classroom activities if improvement in student thinking and synthesizing is to occur.

It is crucial that writing assignments be based upon "real" language uses. I recall a visit to a large southwestern community college where the English faculty was attempting to improve the quantity and quality of student writing. The course guide for freshman English included a rationale statement, beginning with "Some of you may become professional writers, perhaps even famous . . . ." Further discussion failed to identify even one famous writer to come out of their combined 300 years of teaching at that institution; the faculty themselves had but two members who had published anything at all. The rationale statement lost its flavor, not to mention its "rationality," in that analysis. I asked the faculty if they would consider changing their rationale

statement and teaching practical, everyday examples of "real" writing--perhaps creating lessons and assignments from the literacy demands made on students in their other courses and in their personal lives (e.g., writing reports, reading their textbooks, applying for jobs, writing letters to friends).

College faculties may have perceived that today's students are not as well prepared as they were in 1968 and that they must make the necessary adjustments to teach the college curricula to these students who cannot negotiate college level work. But whatever the motivation for the present state of classroom instruction, the results are a mixed bag of watered-down courses and give-away grades. Students are having to do very little and learn very little content to receive passing marks.

Many faculty members speak of the problems that they have in trying to turn the tide all alone. They need the help of an administration that is committed to teaching excellence in the classroom. And the first steps to reaching goals for excellence are the initial preassesssment of student skills and subsequent enrollment in courses where skills will be developed to acceptable levels. Teachers should not be faced with unmanageable diversity of student skill levels in one classroom; freshman students should be reading and writing at appropriate college levels required for completing course work *prior* to their enrolling in regular college courses.

Administrators must get into classrooms and confer with faculty about what they are doing to improve student performance. Teaching practices should be the concern of the administration; faculty meetings should be opportunities for sharing information about student progress or success, and individual instructor reports to administrators should be read and should receive a response. The administration should have working knowledge of course requirements in all divisions within the college and should know what evaluation procedures are used across the curriculum.

In my visits to community colleges, I find that some administrators elect to teach one or more classes each semester. (And when asked if they should, I respond that only if the administrator is able to demonstrate excellence in teaching should he/she accept a teaching assignment.) At one college I visited recently, the faculty was optimistic and enthusiastic about their teaching (and I secretly noted the infrequency with which I find such exuberance exhibited at staff development activities); I asked about the sources of this obvious enthusiasm. The faculty singled out a vice-president for instruction as that source. She regularly taught elective courses in philosophy; and while her courses were academically demanding, students were eagerly enrolling in them. Her reputation on campus singled her out as a great model for teaching excellence, and her example created a rich academic environment and set the pace for others!

While there are a few exceptions, strong evidence is available to support allegations that we are not producing graduates of the same quality as those leaving our institutions two decades ago. Institutions that have elected to establish policies and practices for the emphasis and the recognition of teaching excellence--agreeing that students should be involved in reading and writing assignments across the curriculum, assessing students and developing their basic skills prior to their enrolling in other college courses--are seeing improved student persistence and achievement. These institutions *know* that they are doing a better job of teaching; their own investigations of student performance supply them with the evidence.

Students coming to the community college wish to succeed, and they can succeed in an environment that believes they can and promotes that success through the enforcement of policies and practices to make it happen! Colleges must expect students to learn; teachers must behave in ways that insist that they do!

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COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR THE FUTURE

Communication in the 1980's means something very different than it did in the 1950's. Yet the methods and materials that are used in teaching communication skills today continue to be rooted in the demands and values of a fast-fading industrial era. For example, the communications demands of the industrial age were largely vertical. Messages flowed up and down (mostly down) a relatively small and tight chain of command, reaching the factory floor in the form of directives, quotas, etc. Industrial workers had little need for communication with each other on the job. Lateral communication was a function of management, and the higher up the ladder one went, the more important it became.

The information society has a much greater demand for lateral communication. As more and more workers move from production into services, particularly information services, the need for communication among them increases enormously. This is not to suggest that vertical communication will disappear. But with more than half of the American work force currently engaged in the production, processing, storage, retrieval and distribution of information, it is apparent that the flow of messages is no longer predominantly down a chain of command, but is increasingly lateral.

In addition to this lateral/vertical shift, there are numerous other changes in the communications processs.

- Industrial-age information tends to be task-specific. "How many widgets did we make in September?" Information-age information tends to become organic, to take on a life of its own. "Where do the figures tell us we should go from here?"
- Industrial-age communications tend to be factual reports while information-age communications contain and require more inferences and judgments.
- Information-age communications are much faster paced. Not only has transmittal time been reduced, but so has message length and time for development of the message. We want our information fast and brief.
- Information-age communications are more graphic and less verbal. We are relying more and more on charts, graphs and pictures to say what we mean.
- Information-age communications are more technologically directed. The capability of equipment (computers, word processors, videodiscs, etc.) influences the nature of the communications, sometimes limiting message length or type, requiring specialized vocabulary or preferring visual messages to verbal.
- Information-age writing tends to be transcribed speech rather than composed prose. Not only are more and more messages dictated, but even prose composed with pencil and paper has become more colloquial, mirroring speech patterns rather than traditional writing conventions.

If these were the only changes facing us (and they represent the merest suggestion of the full range), they would dictate an immediate reexamination of our definition of basic communication skills and a hard look at our school curriculum. When we include the kinds of communication changes likely to result from widespread use of two-way interactive TV, voice-actuated/voice-responding devices, more elaborate home information/entertainment centers, expanding information utilities and networks, and the shift of work from office to home (to mention just a few impending developments), our current definition of what constitutes basic communications skills becomes almost terrifyingly limited.

It is not what our present school curriculum includes that is so disturbing, but what it omits. If one were to try to deduce the communications practices of our society from what is taught in schools, one would have to conclude that people spend most of their time writing expositions, reading textbooks, and speaking and listening only on rare occasions. The existence of the electronic media, including television, could easily go undetected.

Given this state of affairs, what are some of the other comunication skills that are currently neglected?

Message compression. As the pace of communications continues to quicken and transmission time beomes more expensive, it will become more imperative to make every word (and every symbol) count.

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Decoding and interpreting condensed messages. Schema theory is making us aware of how much the reading process depends upon inferences supplied by the reader. As messages become more abbreviated and condensed, this skill will become even more important.

Kenesics (or interpretation of body language). Already an important skill, it is likely to become even more important as video pictures begin to accompany electronic communications. It is quite likely that relatively formal systems of manual and facial gestures will be developed in order to cram as much information as possible into a given transmission.

Synthesizing information. As it becomes increasingly possible to call up instantly a wide array of related information from a variety of forms, it will be necessary to be able to pull these various messages together into a new informative whole.

Visual literacy. The skill of "reading" pictures, still or moving, is already a necessary aspect of modern communications. Undoubtedly this skill will become even more vital in the years ahead.

Rapid analysis and evaluation of message validity. We are already bombarded with a constant barrage of persuasive communications: economic, political, religious, etc. With the introduction of two-way interactive video (such as the QUBE system) requiring instant viewer response as, for example, in a national referendum, it will be imperative for the ordinary citizen to be able to distinguish substance from semblance.

Obviously, these skills and all the others necessary to function effectively in an information society *will* be learned. The question is whether they will be integrated into the school curriculum and recognized as essential for everyone or, as at present, left to business and industry to teach.

Including these skills in the school curriculum is largely a matter of changing deep-rooted institutional attitudes and values, a task made more difficult in this instance by the almost religious fervor of the back-to-basics movement. There are, however, some relatively simple steps with which to begin the process.

1. **Concentrate on transitional skills.** Transitional skills are valuable (and valued) in both the industrial and information societies and less likely to be regarded as radical departures from the standard curriculum.
2. **Adopt a more holistic approach to communications and communications skills.** Traditionally, we have concentrated on verbal communications and divided these skills into four categories: reading, writing, speaking, and listening (and then virtually ignored the latter two categories). By broadening our view beyond the traditional and classifying skills as either "transmitting" or "receiving," we obtain both a more accurate model and a more effective approach. For example, we traditionally tie the process of composition to the act of writing. A holistic view would recognize that the act of composition, a transmitting skill, is hardly specific to writing. Photographs, paintings, films, music are all composed.
3. **Identify skills that are genuinely basic to the communication process and distinguish them from those that are essentially social graces.** I submit that most spelling errors do not interfere with communication, nor do errors in agreement. In fact, both these kinds of errors will soon be routinely filtered out by word processors. I do not mean to suggest that these errors are socially unimportant, merely that they are no more "basic" to communication than table manners are to nutrition. On the other hand, distinguishing the main idea from the subordinate detail (saliency), currently taught primarily as a reading skill, is basic. If one does not get the main point, one does not get the message. By clarifying these distinctions we can better arrange our teaching priorities and more honestly identify our purposes.
4. **Increase opportunity for lateral communication.** Most school communication is verbal, from teacher to student, and occasionally from student to teacher. There is little opportunity for, or instruction in, lateral (student to student) communication. This is currently left to chance.
5. **Develop the concept of "communication wardrobe."** Just as no single set of clothing is appropriate for all occasions, neither is one set of communication skills. The limited range of communications currently taught in the schools--reading textbooks and anthologies, writing formal (vertical) essays, answering questions, etc.--forces students to acquire the rest of their wardrobe where and when they can.

There is no reason why the emerging information society should communicate only in some form of mind-deadening Orwellian Newspeak. But only by broadening our perspective and including in education the full range of communication skills that will be needed to function in that society can we hope to foster a balanced development of the traditional skills along with the new.

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PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE IN CONTINUING EDUCATION

Background

The Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education is the result of a three-year project funded and conducted by the Council on the Continuing Education Unit (CCEU) in keeping with two of its stated purposes:

* To promote the strengthening of standards in the field of continuing education and training.
* To work cooperatively with educational organizations, including colleges and universities and other educational institutions; proprietary organizations; professional societies; units of government; and other organizations engaged in noncredit continuing education and training.

This effort was prompted by a growing concern for a lack of quality and consistency in continuing education and training activities. In 1981 the CCEU undertook this research and development project:

* To gather from a broad-based group, representative of continuing education and training, information and opinions on the need for and content of standards and criteria to improve the quality of continuing education and training. Five thousand questionnaires were sent to a wide variety of providers and users; over 800 completed forms were returned.
* To identify current standards, criteria, and guidelines for continuing education and training. Twenty-three different sets of standards, criteria, and guidelines were received and analyzed for content; many respondents indicated that they were using the same materials.
* To develop and propose a set of principles of good practice in continuing education and training that might serve as a reference document for groups and organizations as they develop their own standards and criteria. Twenty-one professionals from a variety of organizations analyzed the research findings and assisted the staff in drafting the final report which consists of 18 principles, 70 additional statements of amplification and interpretation, and a discussion of each principle. Only the 18 principles are included here.

Emphasis on the Learner

These general principles are intended to be flexible in their use by any provider of continuing education or training, regardless of size or scope or mode of operation. These principles are not radically different from those identified elsewhere. What is new and different is the consolidation and refinement of principles and elements from a variety of sources into a single set of principles of good practice, a pervasive emphasis on learning outcomes for the individual learner, and a focus on problem or issue analysis in establishing learning outcomes.

The use of the term "outcomes" in these principles refers to "intended" learning outcomes for individuals and describes what a learner will/should be able to do at the conclusion of a learning experience.

Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education

LEARNING NEEDS IN CONTINUING EDUCATION. Sponsors or providers of continuing education programs/activities utilize appropriate processes to define and analyze the issue(s) or problem(s) of individuals, groups, and organizations for the purpose of determining learning needs.

LEARNING OUTCOMES IN CONTINUING EDUCATION. (1) The continuing education provider has clear and concise written statements of intended learning outcomes for the continuing education program/activity. (2) The statements of intended learning outcomes of a continuing education program/activity focus on learning that can be applied by the learner to situations beyond the boundaries of the learning environment. (3) When a continuing education program consists of several interrelated activities, courses, seminars, and workshops, the contribution of the intended learning outcomes of each to the total program is clearly designated. (4) The agenda of the continuing education program/activity clearly specifies when each learning outcome will be addressed. (5) Learning outcomes are sequenced so that learners are able to recognize their progress toward achieving the stated learning outcomes.

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LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN CONTINUING EDUCATION. (1) Learning experiences are designed to facilitate the role of the learner and are organized in such a manner as to provide for appropriate continuity, sequencing, and integration of the program/activity to achieve the specified learning outcomes. (2) The statements of intended learning outcomes of a continuing education program/activity determine the selection of instructional strategies, instructional materials, media and other learning technology, and create an appropriate learning environment. (3) Program content, instructional materials, and delivery processes are relevant and timely for achieving intended learning outcomes. (4) Instructional staff in continuing education programs/activities are qualified by education or experience to provide quality instruction in the subject-matter area. (5) The physical environment for the continuing education program/activity is conducive to learning.

ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING OUTCOMES. Continuing education programs/activities are evaluated through assessment of learners' performance in terms of intended learning outcomes.

CONTINUING EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION. (1) Each continuing education provider has a clearly written statement of its mission, which is available to the publics served. (2) The continuing education provider has appropriate, sufficient, and stable *human*, *fiscal* and *physical* resources to provide quality programs/activities over an extended period of time. (3) The continuing education provider's promotion and advertising provide full and accurate disclosures about its programs, services, and fees. (4) The continuing education provider ensures the maintenance of a set of limited-access permanent records of participants and the provision of documentation for accurate, readily available transcripts. (5) The continuing education provider makes available to participants recognition and documentation of achievement of learning outcomes specified for the continuing education program/activity. (6) The continuing education provider ensures that appropriate quality control systems are in place and in use within its organization.

How to Use the Principles

The Principles of Good Practice in Continuing Education may be used in a variety of ways by all sponsors, providers and users of continuing education and training as a standard reference document, depending upon the purpose, scope and nature of the organization, agency or institution. Possible uses are:

* As a guideline for the organization, development and administration of a continuing education/training operation.
* As a guideline for associations and organizations in selecting providers of learning experiences for their constituents.
* As a guideline for providers of learning experiences in the design, development, conduct and assessment of their offerings.
* As a reference document for regulatory, accrediting and licensing agencies.
* As a source document for organizations and associations in the development of their own standards of continuing education and training.
* As a guide to consumers in evaluating proposed learning experiences.

These principles have been developed by the Council on the Continuing Education Unit as a public service for the improvement of quality of continuing education and training. The Council encourages the adoption and use of these principles by all who are involved in designing and offering educational experiences.

For further information, contact Ronald Gross, Director, The Lifelong Learning Forum, 17 Myrtle Drive, Great Neck, NY 11021.

Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS

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CONFESSIONS OF A TECHNOLOGICALLY DISABLED PERSON

As much as it pains me to admit it, I am a technologically disabled person. Most new high technology, hard or soft, engenders in me seeds of phobic paranoia. It has always been so, and my constant prayer has been for a government-funded project for the technologically disabled to correct the limitations of my early education.

Born in the deep, rural South my early encounters with technology were quite limited. My first experience was not with a gas stove; my mother cooked on a wood stove heated by the wood I chopped, and it was not difficult to figure out how that system worked. My first experience was not with electricity; we first had that when I was twelve. The kerosene lamps we used held little mystery for me. Neither was my first experience with television watching "Howdy-Doody Time." I saw my first television on an F.F.A. trip to the Florida State Fair in Tampa when I was seventeen. My first experience was not with the marvels of indoor plumbing; I understood everything I wanted to know about the outside facility we used. Everyone had a two-holer, and you could sit with your brother in that cordial environment all morning plumbing the really important mysteries of life. Our advanced technology has taken us to a one-holer, where we contemplate life alone--I wonder, sometimes, if the move from a two-holer to a one-holer is an indication of the dehumanizing effects that can accompany advances in technology?

My first experience was not with these advanced technologies; we really were in the deep, rural South. My first experience came, as most exciting experiences come in the South, on a Saturday night. For on Saturday night when I was seven years old, we walked across Polliwog Creek to my Grandfather's house to listen to the Grand Ole Opry on my Grandfather's pride and joy--a Philco battery-operated radio. I was never allowed to touch it and was not really sure I wanted to. It was an awesome thing to me, and I could not figure out how they got Grandpa Jones, Minnie Pearl, and Ernest Tubb in that big brown box. I could hear Ernest Tubb stretching each syllable lower and lower when he sang "I'm Walking the Floor Over You." And I remember my Grandmother talking to him: "Drag it out, Ernest; drag it out." The radio was a mystery too great for a seven-year-old to fathom, even one with a rich imagination.

I think my grandfather was awed by the mystery of the technology also, because whenever a battery wore out he never threw it away. In fact, a mounting pile of crumbling batteries grew in the corner of the smokehouse, and I remember lying on the smokehouse floor one long summer afternoon poking at the batteries with a stick to see if I could prod Ernest into one more "I'm Walking the Floor Over You."

That was forty years ago, but I am not sure that I have changed very much. I still have limited knowledge, and if I were to confess the absolute truth, fairly limited interest in technology. I still drive the 1964 Volkswagen bug I bought brand new. I still use the same stereo I purchased twenty years ago as a graduate student. Only one speaker works, but I hear everything I need to hear. I have made one concession, however, and that is to use the microwave in our kitchen; but so far I have only used it to melt butter. A Cuisinart sits menacingly on the shelf in the pantry, but I have failed to succumb to its arrogant pressure. I am, obviously, a technologically disabled person living as an anachronism in a time when everyone else is becoming technologically literate.

I do know what my problem is. With the media and my friends constantly bombarding me with information about the technology, I have had to be introspective, and I can recognize three hurdles.

First, I do not understand how any of these new technologies work. The steam engine I understand. There were diagrams of the steam engine in my eighth grade science book, and the kettle on my stove provided a clear example of the basic principle. But no one ever explained electronics to me. There were no diagrams of satellites and computers in my eighth grade science book.

When I ask for help, I am told that I do not have to understand; I only have to accept and learn to operate. Now that is confusing to me after having been told all my life that I had to understand. Nevertheless, I am willing to take a leap of faith and to believe without understanding. In that regard, my Baptist minister becomes a lot like my computer literacy instructor, and I have been down that road before. Technology is a mystery I can handle, and with faith that passeth understanding I can go forth into the world with loins girded to do battle.

The second hurdle, however, is more difficult for me. The concepts are hard enough; the language with which they are explained is impossible. I have no training in speaking in numbers and shorthand. The fact that someone drives a 280-Z or a 450-SL tells me nothing about what is driven. I pay Southern California Gas for *therms* used and Southern California Edison for *killowatts* used, but I do not know what I have paid for. An insert in my gas bill tells me to purchase a *digital* thermostat; my daughter has a *digital* radio; my son owns a *digital* wristwatch; and there is even a National Digital Corporation. But what does *digital* mean? And *chips*. What are *chips* that seem to be the central clue to the mystery of how it all works? Chip off the old block, chipped tooth, my dog Chip, chocolate chip? What is chip that thou art mindful of him?

Bytes and *megabytes*? They are only misspelled words to me. And although *64K* has been explained to me several times, the explanation never stays in my memory. *Uplink* sounds like a rude Italian gesture.

And these are the simple words. What about the higher order words used by the technologist to explain the larger mysteries: *cellular radio, organic computers, fiber optics, holography, bubble memories, biocybernetics, videocom, optecom*. I feel like a bone-head English student who suddenly finds himself in second-year Latin.

The third hurdle has to do with the media hype to sell computers. The marketing offices are constantly trying to seduce me with exciting promises of new experiences, luring me on with exotic shapes and forms and ever cheaper prices. Late one evening in a moment of weakness I even entered the aptly named Radio *Shack*--a house of ill compute. Shyly I ran my fingers over some of the more well-developed models and blanched when a salesman asked me if I had tried one of the *user-friendly* models. He said I could use whatever software I wanted. With a sly grin he said he had a friend who could line me up with an Apple if I didn't see anything I liked there. When he started talking about The Source, I fled this supposed Garden of Eden, my innocence intact.

And yet--there is something that intrigues me about the technology; something related to hopes and dreams and larger visions pulls me to it. In my little Baptist heart I see in technology the hope of answers--answers about expanding, growing, improving, and learning. The seeker in me pursues that hope--and in spite of my great ignorance, in spite of my lack of training, in spite of my resistance, in spite of my English teacher's understanding of the world--I want to learn about technology. My goal is to lift myself up from the technologically disabled and to become, perhaps not able, but at least, more comfortable, more secure and more useful than I am. Perhaps I will even get my other speaker repaired so I can hear Ernest Tubb in stereo.

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COACHING MATHEMATICS AND OTHER ACADEMIC SPORTS

It was one of those gorgeous autumn afternoons: a deep October blue sky contrasted with the brilliant golds and crimsons of the trees, the dazzle of the sun moderated the crispness in the air, and the spirit of the Homecoming crowd brought the stadium to vibrant life. It was a perfect day for football--and hardly the time or the place to be meditating about teaching. But that's where I first began to wonder . . . to wonder why the football coach seemed to have so much more success with his team than I had with my mathematics class. A strange thought, it was.

After the game, I decided to ask the coach the secret of his success. And then I talked with other colleagues in music and drama. It was an odd collection of consultants, but they had one thing in common: they all coached students. They did not just teach; they *coached*. And they all seemed more successful than I, who merely "taught" students. Why?

For one thing, these coaches worked a lot with students on an individual basis. To be sure, they also dealt with students in groups--a team, a choir, a cast--just as I dealt with students in a class. But the crux of their work was individual coaching, something I rarely did. When I did work with students individually, it was more or less a miniature version of what I did in the classroom everyday: explain theory, work problems, ask a few questions.

One big difference was that I rarely asked my students to perform, other than on infrequent hour tests. The coaches were always asking their charges to perform *under observation*--to run plays, to sing arias, to act out roles in rehearsals prior to their big tests. And another big difference was how the coaches dealt with student performance. They carefully reinforced correct performance--one step at a time. They pointed out wrong stances, flat pitches, inappropriate inflections. Then they had students practice repeatedly until one behavior was correct before going on to another.

What did *I* do? I *showed* students how to work problems, whole problems, with several steps carefully ordered in logical sequence. If the students nodded, I assumed that they understood and went on to other problems. Imagine a football coach himself throwing passes and running plays with precision throughout practices while his players watched him--and then leaving them on their own and expecting them to do the same things just as well on the day of the game!

I quickly realized that I might not have time to coach all my students individually all the time. Some talented ones seemed to do pretty well without frequent attention, so I focused my efforts on those who were barely "making the team"--my team--academically. I invited them--no, that's not the word--I *urged* them, and even required some to come to my office for one-on-one coaching sessions. Sometimes I opened these sessions with a brief example to illustrate a concept. More often, I posed a problem and had the student work it on my blackboard. I was careful to provide reinforcement for correct and proper procedures. I provided guidance only as necessary, and I pointed out inappropriate behaviors--one at a time. Then I had the student correct that behavior and practice on similar problems until I felt sure that the technique in question was mastered. I discovered that even the better students sometimes needed to correct little mistakes of which they had never been aware. In addition, I tried to ask questions that allowed the student to organize and summarize, rather than to do these things myself.

It was challenging work, and it was harder work than I had been doing; but it seemed to pay off in terms of learning. Grades on tests improved, and the response from students was quite favorable. I realized that I was putting into practice some principles that I always knew were valid: positive reinforcement and immediate knowledge of results. Somehow these had gotten lost in the shuffle of dividing courses into weeks and days and in the process of covering material "efficiently."

There was an interesting carryover into my daily classroom activities. I found myself asking more questions in class and asking questions more effectively. I was consciously mixing coaching strategies with my customary presentation strategies. I was viewing students more as individuals than collectively as a class. I also began to reduce the time between examinations and to give more short quizzes. (Eventually, in one course I re-

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placed all the hour exams with a pattern of frequent quizzes.) I found it more effective to respond to incorrect problems one at a time than to dump as many as a dozen corrections on a student at once (sometimes this was the case when I graded an hour exam). (The coach never waited until half-time to give his quarterback a truckload of criticisms and suggestions!) And I found myself making a point to write more positive comments on examinations before I returned them to students.

Yet, I wasn't quite satisfied. I went back to the football field for more pointers and more consultation. I noticed some other things that happened there. Players practiced with each other--blocking, tackling, chucking, and all those special behaviors that have begun to make football a complicated (if not fine) art and science these days. Often, they corrected each other without any help from the coach. I decided to have my students sometimes come to coaching sessions in pairs to work with each other, and I encouraged them to continue to do so on their own. Some of them, having experienced the value of working together, did so and reported favorably on the technique. In one class, collaboration evolved into a system whereby students prepared and posted solutions to homework problems for others to use in comparison to their own work. I'm now exploring how to capitalize on the process of students working together during actual class time.

Another thing I noticed on the football field was the relationship between practice and performance. Procedures were learned slowly in practice and gradually improved to the point of rapid and accurate performance (the coach calls it execution) on the day of the game. I recognized that most of my mathematics students grew in ability in the same way. (How could I have been so blind before?) While I continued to have my ever high hopes for them, I came to expect that they would not have much speed or finesse early on. I encouraged them to work toward refined execution so that they would be ready for the big game--uh, the examination.

I also recognized the role played by that ultimate performance, without which practices would lose much of their meaning and purpose. The game, the concert, the play, the examination are very important as goals and incentives. They provide a focus and a target for students' continually improving efforts. In those highly visible instances, students are on the line. Successful performance is not only a reward in itself, but also an incentive to continue to perform well.

I renewed my efforts to help students succeed. I was less willing to let students fail. I even began to give practice exams when appropriate, just as my colleague coaches staged dress rehearsals and final scrimmages. I began to think of learning and teaching from a new perspective. Again, I sensed that students were responding well. Of course, I recognize that football involves a much larger measure of psychomotor skills than does mathematics, with its heavy focus on cognitive skills. I'm trying to be careful not to overdraw the comparison. But it has been an instructive analogy, and the initial results I have found certainly support its usefulness.

I'm continuing to study my teaching from a coach's perspective, and I expect that I'll discover some other new approaches. I hope so. It's been very satisfying to find that an old teaching dog could learn new tricks.

Can coaching concepts be employed in other academic fields? I think so; they involve some fundamental learning principles. Some of my colleagues in English and in foreign languages are doing so with success, so I suspect that what I learned from the coaches can be applied in other settings as well.

Last Saturday, the football team lost rather badly. I came up with several ideas on how the game could have been handled better. I'm waiting for the coach to drop by my office and ask me for some advice . . . I owe him one.

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SANDBOXES AND HONEYBEES

It's difficult to spell. Hard to pronounce. Harder to define. It's hardest still to establish in a school. *Collegiality*. After a lifetime of residence in different sorts of schools, I am convinced that the nature of the relationships among the adults who inhabit a school has more to do with the school's quality and character, and with the accomplishment of its pupils, than any other factor. The success of a school depends upon interactions between teacher and teacher, teacher and administrator, and all school people and parents.

Yet, strangely, collegiality and the ideas it connotes have seldom shown up in the effective-schools literature of the past decade. It is not listed with such factors as strong leadership, emphasis on basic skills, a clear sense of purpose, monitoring of academic progress, and an orderly school environment. Nor is collegiality part of the vocabulary of recent national studies of American education. It is recognized as neither part of the problem nor part of the solution. I wonder why not.

I find that relationships among adults in schools--all schools, from preschools to graduate schools--take several forms.

One of them is described by a wonderful term from nursery-school parlance, "parallel play." Two three-year-olds are busily engaged in opposite corners of a sandbox. One has a shovel and bucket; one has a rake and hoe. At no time do they borrow each other's toys. They may inadvertently throw sand in each other's face from time to time, but they seldom interact. Although in close proximity, and having much to offer one another, each works and plays pretty much in isolation. This description serves well as a characterization of adult relationships in schools. Teachers and administrators develop subtle ways to influence the other group's domain, but they seldom venture there. A third-grade teacher on one side of the hall carefully respects the teaching space of the third-grade teacher on the other side. One principal in a system seldom visits the school of another. University professors, too, have been described as a group of isolated individuals connected by a common heating system and parking lot. We all seem to have an implied contract: Don't bother me in my work and I won't bother you. Yet, in schools, as in sandboxes, the price of doing things the way we want to--of having personal control over what we do--is isolation from others who might take our time and have us do things differently (and, perhaps, better).

But, of course, not all adult relationships in schools are independent. I observe three different forms of interaction:

Adversarial Relationships. Recently, a Boston-area school principal made a sage observation: "You know, we educators have drawn our wagons into a circle and trained our guns--on each other." When adults in school interact, all too often we attack one another. There's no dearth of enemies outside education, of course, but somehow we manage to create opponents under our own roofs.

A decade ago, Harry Levinson, author of *Organizational Diagnosis*, writing about the workplace of business, used the phrase "emotional toxicity" to describe unhealthy businesses. He observed that "psychotic" organizations, like many psychotic individuals, are characterized by a siege mentality, a feeling of being under constant attack. This mentality is also marked by preoccupation with self-preservation, constant scanning of the environment in search of potential threats, and a desire to avoid any close contact with others. It may be that adversarial relationships among adults in school make "parallel play" a welcome alternative.

Competitive Relationships. The competition among adults in schools stems perhaps from a wish for *all those* in the school to succeed, or for the school to become better than others, but mostly it comes from a desire for *me* to excel.

Typically, competition takes the form of *withholding*. Most school people carry around extraordinary insights about their important work--about discipline, parental involvement, budgeting, child development, leadership, and curriculum. These hard-won insights certainly have as much value to the field as elegant research studies and national reports, but adults in schools have a strong reluctance to make the insights available to those who may be competitors for scarce resources and recognition--that is, to almost everyone else. Nor does anyone want to be considered pretentious by professing this knowledge. Few teachers, for example, want to subject themselves to the criticism of their peers by standing up in a faculty meeting and sharing a good idea

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about grouping children or involving parents. Consequently, all the talk each day among teachers and parents and administrators notwithstanding, a taboo prevails in schools against school people sharing what they know with others. Kevin Ryan, author of *Don't Smile Until Christmas*, has referred to work in schools as an "[illegible] "second most private activity." John I. Goodlad puts it more soberly in *A Place Called School*:

> The classroom cells in which teachers spend much of their time appear to be symbolic and predictive of their relative isolation from one another and from sources of ideas beyond their own background of experience.

How can a profession survive, let alone flourish, when its members are cut off from others and from the rich knowledge base upon which success and excellence depend? Not very well.

A day after watching the 1983 Boston Marathon from the top of Heartbreak Hill, I had the good fortune to sit on a plane beside one of the top finishers. I asked this young man how he did it. "How do you run and run fast for more than two hours, up and down hills, in the face of such extraordinary difficulties?" I expected him to emphasize competition or the pursuit of personal glory; instead, he observed thoughtfully that "I do it because of the crowds. The people along the side of the course. For 26 miles, everyone is cheering, giving me water, support, not interfering, keeping others from interfering, so I can run. I do it because everyone wants me to do it. I don't want to let them down."

Competition has its place, but we school people could well use some of these same *supportive* conditions as we struggle up our own hills. Instead, all too often we find along our course a society that values and supports the *product* of education far more than those committed to providing it.

Collegial Relationships. The least common form of relationship among adults in schools and universities is one that is collegial, cooperative, and interdependent. Judith Warren Little, a researcher at the Far West Regional Laboratory in San Francisco, offers a good working definition of collegiality in schools. Collegiality, she says, is the presence of four specific behaviors. First, adults in schools *talk about the practice of teaching and learning* frequently, continuously, and in concrete and precise terms. Second, they *observe each other* teaching and administering. These observations become the "practice" they can reflect upon and talk about. Third, they *work on the curriculum together* by planning, designing, researching, and evaluating it. Finally, they *teach each other* what they know about teaching, learning, and leading.

As obvious and logical and compelling as these ideas are, they find all too little following in schools.

We are familiar with the enormous risks and costs associated with observing, communicating, sharing knowledge, and talking openly about the work we do. Yet somehow most good schools I've been in are ones where parallel play and adversarial and competitive relationships among adults have been transformed into cooperative, collegial ones. It is possible.

I am a beekeeper. I am looking out a window of a farmhouse in coastal Maine at three hives of Italian honeybees draped with a generous cloak of snow. Last summer, I robbed over a hundred pounds of honey from each of these colonies--more than enough to get family and friends (and bees) through the winter. I remember looking through this same window in August, pondering these remarkable little creatures and their complex social organization. In a hive of 60,000 insects, there are scouts always on the lookout in the fields for a new source of nectar. Fanners stand on the landing board during a hot day for hours at a time, beating their wings in order to circulate fresh air through the colony. Water carriers find a pond or stream and bring water back to help cool the hive and produce the honey. Nectar carriers bring in the raw material for the honey. Cappers seal the honeycomb in wax and others mate with the queen and sustain the hive.

Observing these astonishing levels and examples of communication, sharing, and interdependence, I cannot help but compare the bees' little society with schools. Perhaps it is unfair to compare "lower-order" creatures with "higher" forms of life, but the comparison suggests just how much adversarial and competitive behavior dominates our schools, how little collegiality we see, and how much our schools suffer because of it.

On the other hand, it is a discouraging realization. But these little honeybees also suggest something else. They suggest just how great may be the power of cooperative behavior in the service of a common purpose. There is much we can learn from sandboxes and honeybees.

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VALIDATING AFFECTIVE EXPERIENCES

It is a well-known phenomenon that students will forget most of the cognitive material learned in a course unless that material is quickly and then frequently put to use. What will survive for a longer period of time, however, are the *attitudes* generated by the instructional experiences. But in spite of what we know about forgetting and about the importance of developing good attitudes toward learning, there continues to be a prevailing instructional disposition to narrowly emphasize content material at the expense of positive attitude development. As for students, generally the sole apparent benefit of many school learning experiences is the final grade. Students are rarely aware, with any degree of certainty, of any other benefits that they derive from a course.

The desires to tackle a common assumption that "feelings are not measurable" and to promote student awareness of a wider range of course outcomes encouraged me to design a survey measuring the positive behavioral changes generated by my course in art appreciation. Using the classification of goals developed in Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives/Handbook II: Affective Domain*, I generated questions reflecting twelve affective levels.

The survey is administered during the first class before students are given any orientation to the course and then again at the end of the semester. Initial survey questions relate to feelings as basic as simple awareness and become progressively more complex, finally dealing with commitment to a value at the highest level in the affective domain.

Some sample survey items are included here. Student responses (shown in percentiles), collected in a recent art appreciation course, follow each of the sample items and demonstrate how percentile shifts in "before" and "after" attitudes can be used to measure affective outcomes.

1. How willing are you to tolerate new and unfamiliar forms of art such as "Pop Art"? (Willingness to Receive)
   (a) Bored--2.9%-2.1%; (b) Uncertain--18.9%-7.0%; (c) Indifferent--20.1%-10.6%; (d) Curious--35.5%-46.0%; (e) Interested--19.5%-33.3%
2. How willing are you to voluntarily look at works of art in magazines and in art galleries? (Willingness to Respond)
   (a) Don't like doing it--2.4%-0.0%; (b) Doing it bores me--6.5%-4.3%; (c) Only when I have to--18.9%-7.8%; (d) Occasionally do it--43.2%-40.4%; (e) Interested in doing it--26.0%-46.0%
3. How much satisfaction do you experience when responding to a sculpture or painting you've noticed? (Satisfaction in Response)
   (a) Don't like anything--4.5%-2.1%; (b) Find it boring--10.7%-2.1%; (c) A little enjoyment--52.7%-30.5%; (d) Enjoyment--21.9%-46.8%; (e) A great deal of enjoyment--8.9%-18.4%
4. How much real appetite or taste do you have for what is generally considered good art in the sense that you realize it has value for you? (Acceptance of a Value)
   (a) None at all--11.2%-1.4%; (b) Very, very little--36.1%-4.9%; (c) A little appetite--28.9%-24.1%; (d) Moderate amount of taste or appetite--14.8%-50.4%; (e) Great deal of taste or appetite--6.5%-19.1%
5. How much do you consider it an important part of your development as a well-rounded person to actively seek out new visual experiences by visiting art galleries or museums, or by developing your latent artistic talents? (Commitment to a Value)
   (a) Not at all--17.8%-4.3%; (b) Only slightly important--18.3%-16.3%; (c) Moderately important--27.8%-17.7%; (d) Valuable--24.3%-46.8%; (e) Absolutely essential to growth--8.9%-14.9%

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6. To what extent do you attempt to discover and crystallize the ideas an artist is suggesting in a work of art you admire? (Organization of a Value System)
   (a) Never--12.4%-1.4%; (b) Hardly ever--27.8%-5.7%; (c) Sometimes--41.4%-34.0%; (d) Very often--11.2%-38.3%; (e) As often as possible--4.1%-20.6%
7. To what extent are you willing to explore and tolerate new and seemingly confusing art forms as a means of increasing your understanding and appreciation of unfamiliar art forms? (Internalized Characterization of a Value Complex)
   (a) Unwilling to accept any new art forms--2.4%-1.4%; (b) Only slightly willing--18.3%-7.8%; (c) To moderate or limited extent--36.7%-19.9%; (d) Often willing and tolerant--28.4%-47.5%; (e) Consistently open and tolerant--9.5%-19.9%

This is at best a partial exploration of affective changes, with many of the usual limitations of attitude questionnaires; but the benefits of the exploration outweigh the shortcomings of the test design. In spite of the fact that individual student responses are anonymous, seeing the overall statistical results formalizes the affective changes for the student and confirms the fact that more "learning" has occurred than we realize. The survey results can produce a substantial objective verification of the instructor's success in shaping positive attitudes and/or create a workable framework for crystallizing changes one would wish to produce. The format of the survey can be as simple or as involved as discipline or instructional needs dictate.

A long-term (five-year) study was further developed to measure attitudinal changes with the passage of time. Generally speaking, the mail survey indicated some return to somewhat similar negative levels reflected in the earlier pre-test, but there was a minimal decrease in the percentage of students who still felt strongly positive about the Visual Arts. There remained a high level of satisfaction, tolerance, and an increased appetite for experience in the Fine Arts.

Surveys measuring affective outcomes can be useful checks on student learning and experiences. For example, it is obvious that students training for work in service industries require affective training to be effective in their work and that some procedure by which outcomes of that training can be measured is crucial to course evaluation. But instructors in any discipline can develop questions that probe students' affective experiences in the interest of developing and strengthening positive attitudes toward learning. Students educated only in cognitive skills often lack the overall awareness and sensitivity to truly value themselves and the complexity of the demands made on them. Lacking a positive sense of value in their work and learning, in general, places limits on their potential for growth, success and personal happiness.

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Editor's Note: "Communication Skills for the Future," *Innovation Abstracts*, Vol. VI, No. 19, carried an approved credit line that did not include the author's name: Dr. Ronald T. LaConte, Professor of Education at the University of Connecticut. Please note a typographical error and substitute *kinesics* on p. 2.

Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
September 28, 1984, Vol. VI, No. 25

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THE FILM ESSAY AS AN EDUCATIONAL DEVICE

I call it a film essay. It is one of the most useful teaching devices I have ever developed.

Every teacher faces the same problem, whether the students are six-year-old first-graders or 60-year-olds returning to a college classroom: how to encourage the student to actively engage information; tackle it analytically; and re-express it in structured, personalized form. Many college classrooms gravitate toward short-term parroting on exams and outright plagiarism in paper-writing. Is it possible to standardize a technique which, without relying on a teacher's charisma or a student's honesty and dedication to an idealistic conception of education, encourages students to risk failure and accumulate personally useful knowledge and skills?

I will illustrate this film essay technique with an example from my own classroom:

In a medical anthropology class, I use a film in which trephination--a form of surgery involving removal of a piece of bone from the skull--is done in a contemporary society under technologically primitive conditions. While the class watches the film, they also have before them--on a side wall via overhead projector--one or two questions about the film. For example:

> Describe the medical technique called trephination. For what reason(s) was it done among the people described in the film? Could you use the evidence in this film to understand why trephination was done thousands of years ago?

Immediately after the film the students write their essays. They have been watching the film intently (no whispering, napping, courting or gossiping), actively observing to wrest from it some kind of answer to the questions. In some cases, the answers depend upon or are made easier by the students having read the assigned material for that week, or having completed the study guide accompanying the week's reading, or having attended the lectures. In some cases, the answers depend upon applying some analytical approach which I have been trying to get them to practice. In all cases, the students are required to incorporate specific details from the film; to write in coherent, relevant, grammatically correct sentences; and when appropriate, to take a stand and develop an idea, much as if they were participating in a debate.

The essays are short and easy to grade; I have students write at least ten per semester. I use a 10-point grading scheme, distributing copies of the following grading criteria at the beginning of the semester and simply marking the appropriate category (A,B,C,D,E,F,G) in the margins of their essays:

To earn points:

CATEGORY

A +1: Your essay has no misspelled words. If three words or fewer are misspelled, no point is given, but none are taken away.

B +1: You write in complete, grammatically correct sentences.

C +4: You define the issue (e.g., what is trephination, what is a rumor, what is a revitalization movement?).

D +4: You discuss the issue succinctly, unambiguously, and without padding. Be clear; use relevant examples; do not go off on tangents; speak directly to the issue.

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To lose points:

CATEGORY

E -1: Your essay contains more than three misspelled words.

F -1: You write in incomplete sentences, using dashes instead of correct punctuation.

G -2: You throw in a lot of responses which are irrelevant to the question.

Note that I grade not so much on content as on achieving an organized structure of expression.

The first essays are terrible; and I always have at least one student who panics, says he/she can't write, cries, argues, or drops. But by the end of the semester, a remarkably high and consistent level of performance is achieved, in particular among those convinced they couldn't do it.

When I return their essays, I also return my own "answer." For example, this is my reply to the above questions:

> Trephination is a type of surgery involving the removal of a piece of bone from the skull (from Greek *trypan*, to bore). The film made a brief, passing reference to its being done to relieve headaches (but given the film's lack of ethnographic sophistication, I wouldn't accept that explanation at face value). It is acceptable to use contemporary ethnography to suggest reasons for customs in prehistory (for example, Australian aborigines interpret the handprints in prehistoric cave paintings as instructions for creeping upon the animals also portrayed in the painting), and indeed the trephination we see in paleopathology may have been done to relieve headaches; but contemporary evidence is suggestive only. We have no way of proving whether or not the guess is accurate. Also, to argue for such a connection between past and present implies that technologically primitive people never change, an assumption which is not valid.

The students are responsible for reading these answers and comparing them with their own; questions relevant to the content or intent are included in future exams.

Thus, not only does the film essay train for analytic, active observation of film material and reinforce learning and memory of existing course content, it also provides a context in which useful writing skills can be developed. Past students have commented on its lasting usefulness. One student said, "The word 'essay' used to terrify me; I didn't know how to begin. Now I start with a definition, decide what angle I'm going to take, apply the definition to concrete data, summarize what I've done, and get complimented on my clear, organized thinking."

While the film essay will certainly not replace more elaborate research papers, it may be used in a variety of ways to stimulate active response in a classroom setting, to encourage analytic engagement with standardized material, and in general to exercise a faculty which seldom gets sufficient attention: critical thought in written form.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VI NO. 27

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REALITY-TESTING A BUSINESS CURRICULUM

Enrollment trends reflect a significant student shift from the humanities and social sciences to business. Accompanying that enrollment shift is a change in students' value orientation which aligns them with practice rather than with theory. Even when the teaching of theory is necessary, business students typically prefer theory that is teleologically linked with practice. Such preferences become the catalysts for important business curriculum decisions.

Business Management is based upon a wide variety of theories--theories which can seem abstract and somewhat ethereal as they are taught in the classroom. Thus, in order to transport such theories from the cognitive realm to the affective realm, many students need to have the classroom experience supplemented by opportunities to reality-test what is taught in the classroom. While case studies, simulation games, and role-playing provide opportunities for *concept application*, they do not provide the opportunity for reality-testing theories and concepts since such "reality" experiments occur within the parameters of rigidly controlled conditions. Even when internships are included in the Business Management curriculum, only limited reality-testing occurs, for the student actually functions quite often within a very limited sphere of business activities.

In order to address this perceived gap in the academic experiences of business students, an experiment was conducted in one section of an Introduction to Business course at Howard Community College during the spring semester, 1984. Students were given the option of writing a paper on someone else's entrepreneurial experience or of starting their own small business as a class project. (The project was valued at 20 percent of their final evaluation.) From a total enrollment of 29, 19 students chose to create their own organizational structure and start their own collective business (two of the original members were subsequently voted out of the business for inadequate participation). From the moment of initial formulation of the project, the students were able to "test" many of the concepts taught in the classroom. Highlights of those "tests" are featured here.

Introduction to Business textbooks always include a chapter on the business environment. This chapter tends to focus upon social, economic, political and cultural forces which shape the business organization. In order for the students' business, Donuts Galore, to open its doors, the students found it necessary to "solve" problems involving the business environment. In this instance, government regulations were replaced by campus regulations since the students had decided to operate a coffee and donuts stand on campus. Because of campus rules, it was necessary for them to "joint venture" with another campus organization--the Howard Community College Business Club. Additionally, campus regulations required that Donuts Galore be organized as a non-profit organization. Thus, the students decided to distribute profits as scholarships to member participants.

Still other textbook concepts were tested at this initial stage. The students conducted a market analysis to determine the type of business that they should open. They discovered that marketing research is more complex than the process described in the textbook. For example, they sought to examine secondary data on sales trends for various food products; but while the list of instructor-provided sources was quite complete, local public and private libraries tended not to carry the data. (However, the information did arrive after the completion of the project.)

Other concepts were applied with greater ease. In order to choose the precise spot for locating the donut stand, a location analysis was conducted. The students excitedly stood at various locations and measured the flow of students over a period of several hours. The concept of channels of distribution assumed reality as the vice-president for production and operations began discussing quantity discounts with companies already in the business of making donuts. The difference between cost-based and demand-based pricing began to take shape as the students argued the issue of pricing according to their costs or on the basis of the donut prices charged by the student cafeteria. Similarly, the demand for rudimentary accounting skills began to emerge as the students decided to classify their coffee supplies as a current asset and their borrowed percolator as a fixed liability.

The project not only required the application of marketing and accounting concepts; it illuminated concepts learned in the classroom regarding financial management, organizational behavior, and personnel management. The students actually refused instructor-offered financial assistance for start-up costs. Rather, they opted to require each participant to contribute from $3.00 to $5.00. The financial contributions exposed the direct linkages

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which exist between the business form and the method of financing. For example, debates occurred regarding whether the financial contributions should be accepted within the context of a partnership or corporate business form. After carefully reviewing both the text and supplementary readings, the students decided that neither the partnership nor the corporate form was applicable to their organizational needs. Accordingly, they created a special organizational arrangement in which group members received a pre-determined number of points for both time *and* money invested. This organizational form was perhaps most like a cooperative. Total points earned at the close of the project were then used for the assignment of scholarship monies to each participant. Since points were earned based upon time as well as money invested, the students were able to understand how personnel management is intimately linked with all of the other phases of business management. Additionally, the students were able to "learn" business.

Although classes began in late January, Donuts Galore was able to open its doors on March 19, 1984. The students took the first several weeks to write their business plan, get the necessary permits, set up an accounting system, write job descriptions, and plan all phases of their marketing strategy. Their profit objective was that of earning $1,000.00 by May 4, 1984. They successfully met this financial goal. Although obstacles were encountered and experiences were shared for which textbooks could not adequately prepare them, all of the students evaluated the experiment as an excellent learning experience.

While this experiment provided opportunities for students to do reality-testing, it also created certain problems. First, the project tended to create so much excitement among the participants that some students began investing too much of their limited time in the project-related activities. (Several of the students were counseled about their poor performance on quizzes and other "textbook" evaluations.) Second, the net effect of the project, on almost one-half of the students, was that of creating an over-reliance upon practice and an underestimation of the importance of theory. Third, the project created certain administrative problems with accurately assessing and assigning grades to students' performance. Although each student was required to maintain a detailed log documenting his/her contribution to the business and the log was checked against the performance appraisals of the group's personnel manager, discrepancies still appeared.

In order to formally evaluate this experiment, five open-ended questions were formulated, asking the student to respond to the project in terms of its strengths and weaknesses. As previously mentioned, while all students described the project as an excellent learning experience, two major areas for possible revision were identified. First, the instructor's role in the initial project was that of "business consultant"; thus, the instructor did not attend company meetings without invitation and did not make decisions for the business. Rather, alternative courses of action were brought to the attention of the project managers. [In the classroom, however, Donuts Galore activities were used as a case study as new concepts were introduced.] Almost half of the students involved in the project felt that a major weakness was the relatively passive role played by the instructor; in contrast, the other half saw the instructor's posture as a vote of confidence. Second, several students voiced the objection that the students/managers tended to assume an autocratic management style. Resentments growing out of this perception tended to create disharmony occasionally within the classroom.

All outcomes considered, this experiment served as an important step in introducing business realism to the sometimes surrealistic classroom experiences.

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL VI NO. 28

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DO SWEAT THE SMALL STUFF

We all are facing megaproblems: declining enrollments, increasing rates of curriculum change, changing character of our students, competition from four-year institutions, uncertain financing--to name only a few. This note is a relief from all that. Offered in the belief that details can make a difference, the following is just "small stuff," generally easy to implement and sometimes even fun. Also--a bonus--all are cheap, and some cost no money at all.

1. **Make sure a faculty member knows the reading level of the texts used in class.** To ensure that each instructor knows that level(s), grade-level equivalent scores and/or readability indices can be required on textbook order forms (without these scores the bookstore will not place the textbook(s) order). To facilitate faculty completing the readability tests on present or prospective texts, the means should be handy. The Fry, for example, can use both a small slide rule-like device (about $5) which can be given to every department and an easy-to-use piece of software (about $35) which can be made available where microcomputers are housed. Note that this does not tread on anyone's prerogative to choose a text; it asks only that a faculty member know the reading level of the text being ordered.
   Incidentally, what texts required in your college's classes are likely to have the highest reading level? Answer at the bottom of the reverse side of this page.

2. **Work with secretaries to make them more aware of the importance of being nice to students.** Secretaries talk to more students individually in one week than do deans, maybe even more than do some faculty. Especially at the beginning of a term--when students need information, directions, and reassurance--student contacts are plentiful. If you've ever had a good meal ruined by a surly waitress, you know how a student can have a day ruined by a sarcastic secretary. To a secretary, students are generally interruptions, and treating interruptions as welcome is hard. None the less, some of a student's feelings toward a college can be formed by the response of someone from whom he/she seeks help. To sensitize secretaries to the needs of students and to the wishes of the college that they be treated well, a short in-service session can be held prior to the beginning of the academic year. Helpful tips and college support for meeting student needs can be discussed. For example, one-page campus maps might be provided to the secretaries. They can use them to draw directions in response to student questions about building and classroom locations; and the student will have received a fast, accurate, and rather painless response to a problem.

3. **Determine what percentage of your degree-earning graduates complete their programs in two consecutive years and measure that against the wording in your catalog.** If the figure is around 20%--quite normal these days--does your catalog still refer to *two*-year programs, *two*-year degrees? If so, why do you word your catalog to reflect a time frame appropriate to only a small minority of your students?

4. **Send more memos.** Reserve the format of one side of one-half sheet of paper of a pre-determined, particular color to be used exclusively for ideas about improving instruction. The contents should be pragmatic, thought-provoking, or both--and short, of course. These mini-memos could be prepared and distributed by any dean or faculty member.

5. **Conduct mini-in-service workshops at the departmental or divisional level about easily-overlooked teaching techniques.** Some examples of workshop topics are:
   (a) How to ask questions--Asking questions is a skill. It can be improved by working with such concepts as the distinction between "coaching" questions, Socratic questions, and rote-answer questions; waiting long enough for student responses (3-5 seconds, no longer than 7) is also a good short subject. (b) Being more sensitive to unconscious "put-downs"--When a teacher says, "I'm sure you've read . . .," what will be the

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reaction of a student who hasn't read it or even heard about it? What's the difference between a teacher saying "Please turn in your papers so I can mark them" and "Please turn in your papers so I can read them"? (c) Making tests work not only for measurement of learning, but for the review and reinforcement of learning--The motives behind testing do vary.

6. **Require that students' correspondence with the college be literate.** (Once, after I had returned a waiver request which was riddled with writing errors, the student immediately sat down in my office and, without aid of a dictionary or tutor, rewrote the petition, error-free.) Some of what passes for illiteracy is mere care-less-ness. If in your college only composition teachers evidence they value literacy, that's a powerful signal which students will pick up easily and quickly. If your school really wants to risk being radical, try having all teachers demonstrate in their classes that they value literacy in both their students and themselves.

7. **Offer a short class in study skills.** Consider teaming it with a class in which attrition is usually high. Students would enroll in both classes, and the teaching of study skills would be tailored for success in the companion class.

8. **During the first days, all classes should meet for the full scheduling period.** No dismissing early for purchasing texts or because all students are not yet enrolled; teacher-student time is precious. Spend some time on ice-breaking activities which expedite learning students' names, learning something about each one, and helping students get to know the instructor. Activities which foster the forming of mutual self-help study groups are especially valuable; community college students have minimum opportunities for organizing such support groups. We should try hard to disregard the vestigal Puritan ethic which labels these efforts frivolous. They're not. Making such efforts with empathy, naturalness, and humor, the outcomes can predispose a student to want to learn in the class.

9. **Don't miss opportunities to compliment colleagues.** If you're an administrator and you learn of a faculty member's special effort or success, send a note of congratulations and thanks. It's much more fun than writing another memorandum on registration procedures. If you're a faculty member and your dean (by chance) does something right, write a note or make a phone call. Most of a dean's day is filled with agenda items which are less than pleasant. Help your dean keep his perspective by brightening his/her day. Share pride in each other's successes. It helps make a joyful workplace.

10. **Take or call; don't send.** If you refer a student to a counselor or to the library or to the records office or to another faculty member, walk there with the student and make the face-to-face introductions. Many students get lost, often to suit their own purposes, somewhere between the sender and the receiver. If campus layout or time pressures absolutely forbid taking those few minutes required to walk with the student, at least--in the student's presence--phone the place he/she is to go or the person he/she is to see. Then you can say to the student, "Mrs. Hardy is free now and is looking forward to meeting you."

Details can make a difference. We cannot solve megaproblems without close attention to the "small stuff."

Answer to the question in #1: Texts having the highest reading levels are most likely those used in nursing. Manuals used in voc-tech courses are likely to be written at grade-level equivalents of 15-17. Other subject areas often have excellent and appropriate texts written at the 10-12th grade level, but there are usually no substitutes for the actual technical manuals which need to be used in voc-tech courses.

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ATTENDANCE AND ACHIEVEMENT

In a previous research study at the City Colleges of Chicago, highly successful students said that they thought attendance was the most crucial factor in involvement and success in college work. These highly motivated students, who had entered the City Colleges with relatively low reading skills, said that they attended class *all of the time* and that they viewed absenteeism as the most common reason why other students do poorly in college.

Attendance is one manifestation of involvement in academic work. Our previous research showed that very successful students are highly involved in class: they pay attention, ask questions, contribute to discussions, and take notes. Outside of class, they study in quiet environments, avoid distractions, and take advantage of college resources to assist them in their studies. Students must attend class in order to reach these high levels of involvement.

How much influence does attendance have on final achievement? In order to obtain an objective answer to this question, researchers at the Center for the Improvement of Teaching and Learning requested and collected spring semester 1983 attendance rosters and final grade reports from a small sample of instructors chosen randomly from business, social science, mathematics, and English departments at two of the City Colleges. The courses sampled in this study included high enrollment, introductory level courses; they were balanced evenly between day and evening sections. We ascertained from the teachers that the grades in these courses were based predominantly on achievement measures.

From that data, a histogram was constructed; it demonstrated the strong relationship between student attendance and final grades. Students who earned a final grade of A attended nearly 95% of the scheduled class sessions during the first five weeks of the semester. On the average, these students missed only one class at the beginning of the semester. Many had perfect attendance. At the other extreme, students who eventually failed the course attended only about 75% of the early class sessions. Attendance during the entire semester was equally strongly correlated to final grades.

The results of this pilot study indicate that student attendance (at the beginning of and throughout the semester) and final grades are highly correlated. The overall achievement level of classes also increases when the class attendance rate increases. Many different factors combine to determine student achievement. Attendance is one of these factors that can be changed. Students who attend classes have greater opportunity to learn, and they also earn greater teacher recognition.

Researchers suggested that teachers might encourage better attendance by discussing this research project and its findings with their students. They cautioned against guaranteeing that high or perfect attendance would provide students with good grades; rather, they encouraged them to alert students to the fact that good attendance does indeed increase the *likelihood* of earning better marks. The researchers further encouraged instructors to post the following histogram and accompanying remarks on their office doors or in their classrooms, or copy and distribute it to their students.

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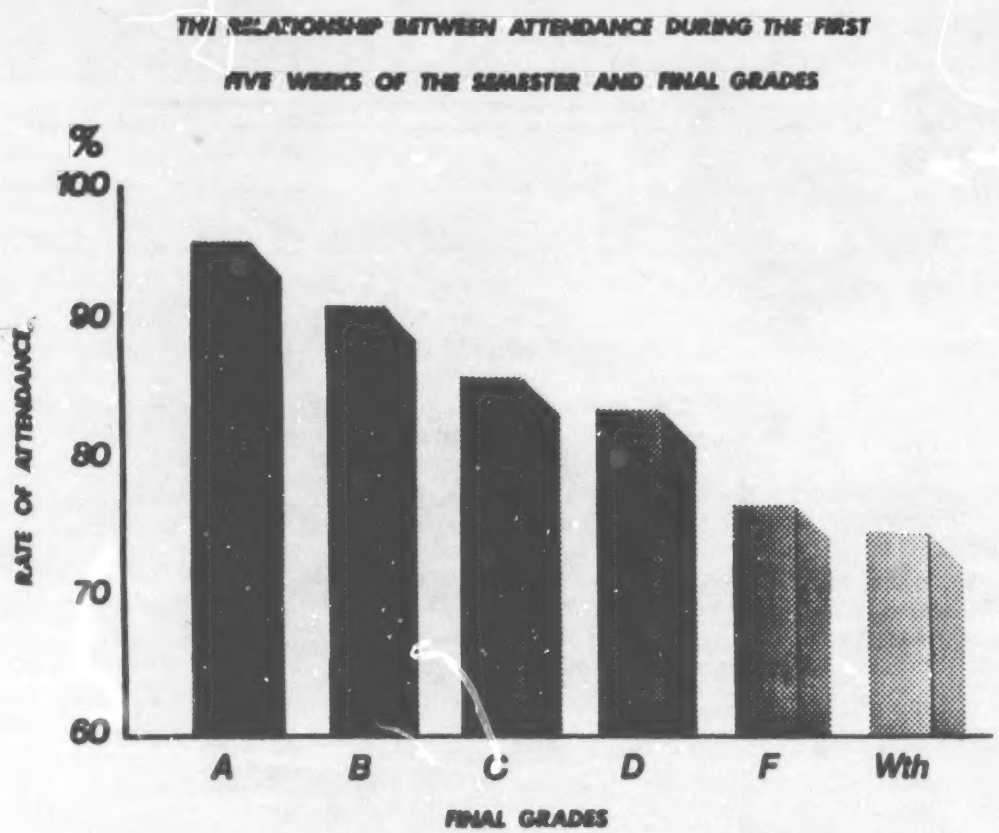

This chart illustrates the results of a study conducted at City Colleges of Chicago. This study found that students who attend class frequently at the beginning of the semester receive higher final grades than do students who miss classes. Attendance and final grades continue to be related to each other for the entire semester.

A and B students attend between 90% and 95% of classes at the beginning of the semester. C and D students attend 80% and 85% of classes. Students who fail or withdraw attend only 70% to 75% of these classes.

Many important factors work together to influence final grades. Attendance is one of those factors that you can control easily. If you improve your attendance, then your grades will probably improve. You increase your opportunities to learn when you attend class more often.

John Q. Easton, Research Specialist
Chicago Board of Education

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL VI NO. 31

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WHO HAS THE QUESTIONS?

Recently, the president of a community college queried faculty about a committee's draft of promotion and tenure guidelines. The responses were varied. One teacher's suggestion was to initiate competency testing during the probationary period of employment. He admitted it was an unpopular concept and further stated that if word ever got to his colleagues that he had even thought such nonsense, the president was to look in the department's storage room where he was surely to be found bound and gagged. The suggestion emanated from a concern the teacher had about the number of tenured faculty he had observed who had an inadequate command of teaching and/or the teaching of their specialization.

Several important thoughts are embedded in the preceding episode. One is the notion of competency--integral to a discussion of excellence, quality behavior, and productivity in teaching. Another is that of communication as a competency for teaching. And yet another, that of questioning and inquiry as a communication competency, is more subtle but represents a critical issue for both teaching and its administration.

As a teaching competency, questioning and inquiry provides the teacher with a powerful tool for stimulating students toward the higher levels of thinking frequently ignored in education. As a student competency, inquiry skills instill responsibility as only the student can. As an administrator competency, asking the right questions at the right time enhances the decision-making process and fosters consensual management.

In all cases, questioning and inquiry is particularly relevant to the information-seeking, information-disseminating crest that society is riding into the twenty-first century. In the future, the person equipped with questioning skills will be able to scan and search for answers in much the same way a fine computer does.

Questioning and inquiry, while similar, bear unique distinctions. Both are precipitated by a state of uncertainty and a need-to-know. Both also suggest some form of interaction between two persons or a person and some area of knowledge. Questioning, however, suggests the Socratic method of teaching--interrogatives which generally presume a spoken or written response for satisfying the questions. Inquiry, on the other hand, suggests a more systematic form of questioning as is used in the pursuit of scientific knowledge.

Many teachers--whether they stumbled upon a career in teaching or prepared for it--acknowledge the incongruity between the demands of a first teaching assignment and their somewhat naive perceptions about how students learn. The interactive nature of questioning leaps both teacher and student toward mutual discovery, making learning organic and providing both with feedback in the teaching-learning partnership. It is from these concepts of questioning and feedback that the new instructional technologies such as interactive video are built. Hence, if there are financial constraints to prohibit sophisticated equipment, excellent teachers may take solace in knowing that they can produce the same or better results through "homespun" questioning strategies.

Questioning and inquiry can serve generic and content-specific functions. Some questions, for example, have managerial functions in the classroom; that is, they facilitate group behavior (examples: Is everyone ready to begin? *OR* May I have your attention, please?). Other general types of questions include:

1. *rhetorical questions*: broad inquiries intended to stir curiosity but not necessarily a response
2. *recall questions*: the lowest level of inquiry in which the respondent delves into acquired knowledge or experience
3. *data collecting questions*: a slightly higher mode of inquiry in which the student responds to observation or stimuli
4. *data processing questions*: inquiries resulting in responses which are in the form of opinions, hypotheses, comparisons, or possible solutions
5. *verification questions*: the highest level of inquiry requiring evaluative or judgmental responses
6. *convergent questions*: inquiries requiring that students explain, state relationships, or compare and contrast
7. *divergent questions*: inquiries requiring students to reconstruct, predict, invent, design, or hypothesize
8. *evaluative questions*: inquiries requiring students to judge, value, defend, or justify a choice or solution

Content-specific questions have significant functions. For example, certain types of questioning techniques can be more effective than others in diagnosing reading deficiencies and in assessing what a student knows about the nature of reading. In the teaching of writing, inquiry is the basis for the production of a well-written piece. Knowing effective syntactic structures, targeting an audience, organization, and so forth are inconsequential if the writer does not know how to conduct the inquiry.

In the teaching of science, the way in which a teacher asks questions and relays information can influence how a student will perceive the discipline. Since the teacher functions in a dual authority role, that is, she/he is seen to be *in* authority to do a job and *an* authority of science, it is possible for a teacher to present information without scientific reasons wholly from her/his position of authority. To do so is to diverge from the ideals of rationality toward which practicing scientists strive in their profession.

Some questioning sequences in the teaching of science place a high priority on "the right answer," inhibiting the student's image of science as knowledge which is heuristic and open to discovery and dispute. What one finds in some classrooms, then, are "gifted lesson learners," students who excel at low-order thinking skills but who frustrate easily with tasks requiring integrative thinking. Although educators have always endorsed high-order thinking as a critical process for learning, far too many high school and college graduates leave their institutions with an inability to use reflective thinking when they are presented with problematic issues.

If society is depending on the development of human intelligence for the advancement of technology and an improved quality of life, then students and society are depending on teachers for that development. In the technological labor market, for example, service personnel working with sophisticated electronic equipment must now possess design and application thinking skills once ascribed only to engineers. Engineers must strengthen divergent thinking skills to reconstruct, predict, invent, and design in areas of medicine once reserved only for physicians. Physicians and scientists of the future must be similarly prepared in evaluative skills to judge, value, defend, or justify a choice or solution in today's test-tube advancements.

The literature notes various levels of success in training both teachers and students to ask questions which develop high-order skills. Research findings include: students of teachers trained in questioning techniques ask higher-order questions, achieve and retain knowledge at a significantly higher level than those taught by teachers who were not trained in questioning techniques; teachers increasing the wait times--pauses in teacher-student dialogue--significantly produced a more conversational tone in their classrooms, more frequent student questions, fewer failures of student response, and higher-order student questions and responses. Teachers and students should note that knowledge is changing at such a rapid rate that perfect judgments, even when all the information is available, are generally not possible at the higher levels of thinking. As a result, students, teachers, and administrators must value interactive group situations where persons with diverse motivations and experiences can contribute collectively to more perfect judgments during inquiry.

Teachers must become competent in questioning and inquiry strategies. They should insist that students cling tenaciously to individual thinking as a base for higher-order tasks. For the teachers, inquiry strategy is a way to determine what is known by the student, to develop full-range taxonomic thinking skills in students, and to probe the student toward always-higher levels of curiosity and reflection. For the student, the observation and acquisition of questioning and inquiry strategy can shape behavior in analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, all of which are essential to lifelong learning. We may find in both the classroom and the conference room that who has the answers is not nearly as important as who has the *questions*!

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A POPULAR WAY TO KILL FACULTY MOTIVATION -AND AN ALTERNATIVE

Increasing motivation among faculty to teach well these days is both a precarious undertaking and a necessary one. I say "precarious" because dangerous schemes masquerade as good ones and "necessary" because higher education's sands are shifting under our feet. The ultimate results of that shift are uncertain, but the present effects are clear, and reports drone like repetitious chants across academia: the increasing proportion of the tenured, the decreasing rate of institutional mobility, and the resulting "entrenchment" of whole faculties, what James Bess, Professor of Higher Education at New York University, terms "economic and organizational incarceration." Such a gloomy national forecast may miss campuses where the sun shines brightly, but if the entrenchment storm clouds hit this University in force, faculty motivation may be threatened, if not entirely dampened.

The probable results of entrenchment are unappetizing. R. E. Walton, who studies "high commitment work systems," anticipates a faculty shift from high motivation stemming from a strong sense of self-direction and accomplishment to neutrality and even apathy. In some cases, faculty will become privately and publicly hostile toward educational institutions which offer few challenges and a too-certain future. This is not an outcome any of us wants for ourselves or for the University, and the horror stories seem too dramatic to ever apply here. But we have no motivation checks for either tenure or promotion, just the external marks of performance, and we certainly do not talk either openly or readily about these matters. Do we in fact possess the "dynamic vitality" our public image makers describe? Underneath the makeup may lurk a different if more recognizable face. All of which prompts me to ask, "What might be done, with the threat of entrenchment at our doorsteps, to increase faculty satisfaction, motivation, and 'productivity'?"

One popular answer comes in an enchanting array of hues and fragrances. Well-intentioned faculty and administrators ritualistically bless it, although over the long run, it is a good way to kill faculty motivation altogether.

I am thinking of a set of answers really, a host of miracle drugs with the same label, all suggesting "extrinsic" rewards and punishments of some kind as motivators: "merit" salary increases, awards based upon "realistic" teaching evaluations, sabbatical leaves tied to "competitive bids," speedy promotions for the "truly" meritorious, and so forth. Extrinsic rewards are pay-offs after the fact, after the teaching or writing or researching is complete. They are residuals.

In their most deadly form, extrinsic reward systems render the teaching or research process a mere instrumental means to something else, something more important: more money, more prestige, more released time from teaching, or a seat at the divisional meeting closer to the Chair.

Although in my own mind there has always been something funny about those who unreflectively chase rewards like these, I am not suggesting that we do away with salary increases, promotional evaluations, and public achievement--that would be silly, although diabolically enticing. My point is simpler and, probably, even more difficult to make: In most cases, extrinsic backslapping, however good it may be for other purposes, doesn't *motivate* for the long campaign. Educational specialists like Bess, McKeachie, Czikszentmihalyi, Deci, Ryan and others all seem to agree. In fact, extrinsic rewards steadily erode enjoyment of the teaching task at hand. They threaten work which is its own reward, which is *intrinsically* satisfying.

Such extrinsic "motivators" fail for three reasons: (1) They shift the locus of control from the faculty member to the office of an external benefactor. As Deci and Ryan conclude, if self-control increases, intrinsic motivation does as well, but if personal autonomy decreases so does the motivation for one's work. They go on to add,

> When teachers have opportunities to try new things, to teach in idiosyncratic ways, to choose optimal challenges, they seem to be more intrinsically motivated. When the organizational climate is oriented toward supporting autonomy and providing challenges, motivating teachers is unlikely to be a problem.

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(2) Extrinsic rewards generally pay off in the coin of someone else's realm. While merit increases in salary, for instance, may be valuable to some--usually, I should add, for momentary satisfaction rather than long-term motivation--they undoubtedly will not be as valuable to others. Rewards need to be self-selected to be permanently valued, and external reward systems designed for an entire faculty do not provide currency which everyone enjoys spending. The better solution is to individualize rewards.

(3) Extrinsic rewards must be forever increased. McKeachie asks those who wish to use promotion as an incentive, for instance, "What happens when all faculty are full professors; what motivates then?" Will this year's merit scholar with a $500 increase be willing to do more or even the same next year for a similar amount? The ante must be continually raised. Although McKeachie is quick to add, as I am, that "low salaries are bad," good salaries simply prime the pump. They do not pump the water. That comes through intrinsic motivation.

We can learn much about an intrinsic reward system by watching it work in the lives of intrinsically motivated individuals. Mihaly Czikszentmihalyi, Professor of Behavior Sciences and Education at the University of Chicago, has done that systematically and has found that, whether climbing mountains or teaching a class, the intrinsically motivated person regularly experiences great enjoyment in the midst of the activity, what Czikszentmihalyi terms "flow." Flow is characterized by a "deep, spontaneous involvement with the task at hand," a condition in which hours seem like minutes and where the motivation for the activity is the activity itself. How might this apply to teaching?

The choice and structuring of teaching activity is to a large degree our own. According to Czikszentmihalyi, if we build teaching projects, as intrinsically motivated persons do, to meet the following five requirements, we can generate flow experiences and enjoy an increase in personal motivation:

1. Control the challenges you offer yourself so that the degree of challenge is matched with the same level of skill.
2. Isolate the activity from others which might distract your involvement.
3. Using criteria clear to you, be able to evaluate performance at any time.
4. Design the activity so it provides "concrete feedback" to which your criteria can be applied.
5. Create activities with a broad range of challenges so that you can gain "increasingly complex information" about yourself and about your project.

Given this viewpoint, we are more the creators of our own satisfactions and motivations than we may imagine. Certainly, institutional factors influence the general climate, but continued reliance upon extrinsic rewards for motivation simply puts off the day when the classroom and other related activities come alive in their own right. Who will be the last to learn this lesson--faculty or students?

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